





THE
 LANCET AND MEDICAL JOURNAL
 January to June
 1818.



VIEW ON THE SEAS OF RHODE ISLAND.

PHILADELPHIA

Printed by J. B. Lippincott & Co.

THE ENTRANCE OF JESUS CHRIST INTO THE CITY OF JERUSALEM.



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THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

VOLUME XI.

FROM JANUARY TO JUNE, 1818.

**EMBELLISHED WITH A VIGNETTE TITLE-PAGE,
AND SIX OTHER ENGRAVINGS.**

PHILADELPHIA:
PUBLISHED BY MOSES THOMAS, (JOHNSON'S HEAD,)
Nº. 52, CHESNUT, NEAR SECOND-STREET.

J Maxwell, printer

1818.

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The following memorandum was found on the back of the picture, in the hand-writing of the late colonel Jonathan Williams:

'This portrait of Dr. Franklin was painted by Martin, in London, when the doctor was about sixty years of age. It was ordered and paid for by Robert Alexander, then of the house of William Alexander and Sons, at Edinburgh, and was designed to perpetuate the circumstance of his advice, given in consequence of the perusal of certain important papers.'

Dr. Franklin was so well satisfied with Mr. Martin's performance, and the likeness was deemed so perfect, that he was induced to have a copy made by the same painter, at his own expense, and it was sent to his family in Philadelphia. The original painting, from which our engraving is taken, is at present the property of Thomas S. Biddle, Esq. The copy is in the Philosophical Hall of Philadelphia.

DISTRICT OF PENNSYLVANIA, to wit:

BE IT REMEMBERED, that on the 1st day of July, in the forty-first year of the independence of the United States of America, A. D. 1817, MOSES THOMAS, of the said district, hath deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as proprietor, in the words following, to wit:

The Analectic Magazine.

In conformity to the Act of Congress of the United States entitled, "An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned." And also to the act, entitled, "An act supplementary to an act entitled "An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned, and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching historical and other prints.

DAVID CALDWELL,
Clerk of the District of Pennsylvania.

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THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1818.

ART. I.—1. *Vegetable Materia Medica of the United States, or Medical Botany.* By W. P. C. Barton, M. D. Number second, quarto.

2. *American Medical Botany, being a Collection of the Native Medicinal Plants of the United States, containing their Botanical History and Chymical Analysis, and Properties, and uses in Medicine, Diet and the Arts, with coloured engravings.* By Jacob Bigelow, M. D. Rumford Professor and Lecturer on Materia Medica and Botany, in Harvard University. Vol. 1. large octavo.

THERE can be no doubt but in such a country as this, so extensive, comprising such variety of climate and situation, so comparatively unexplored, so new even to its inhabitants—an inquiry into the medical and dietetic properties of the plants it contains, deserves to be pursued, and has strong claims to public encouragement. At the same time it should be kept in view in pursuing such an inquiry, that unless the tendency to extend the vegetable articles of the *materia medica* be kept under pretty strong control, there is hardly a plant of any description throughout the whole United States, but may take its place in such a publication. As the abbè Mably observed of the *eternelle histoire* of M. Gibbon, the medical botany may be continued without prospect of termination, and be left, like a Spanish game of chess, at the decease of the authors, a task to be continued by their posterity for generations yet to come. It is said of Solomon, that he spake of trees, from the cedar that is in Lebanon, even to the hyssop that springeth out of the wall: but the present occasion does not call upon us to follow such an extensive example.

We think it necessary to make these remarks at the outset of the labours of Dr. Barton and Dr. Bigelow, that they may not crowd their publications with articles of slight or dubious utility, or with plants that are inferior in medical virtues, to those in common use by the medical profession, and easy to be procured. The *materia medica* is already crowded with substances useless and inert; which fashionable physicians and young practitioners who seek popularity by recommending new medicines, have forced into the encumbered list. If, instead of doubling the number of plants used in medicine, nine-tenths of those commonly kept in the shops were struck off from the list, quite enough would remain for useful purposes.

Dr. Bigelow seems aware of this, but it may still be necessary to remind him occasionally of his own remarks.

Dr. Barton's first number contained

Chimaphila umbellata (Pipsissewa.)
Sanguinaria canadensis (Puccoon.)
Cornus florida (Dogwood.)
Triosteum perfoliatum (Feverwort.)
Gillenia trifoliata (Indian physic.)
Gillenia stipulacea (small flowered Indian physic.)

His second number contains

Magnolia glauca (small magnolia) very like Michaux's plate.
Liriodendron tulipifera (Tulip tree.)
Cornus sericea (Swamp dogwood.)
Symplocarpus fœtida (Skunk cabbage.)
Symplocarpus fœtida angustispatha (Purple-skinned skunk cabbage.)

Cassia marilandica (American Senna.)

Dr. Bigelow's first volume contains.

Datura stramonium (Thorn apple.)
Eupatorium perfoliatum (Thorough-wort.)
Phytolacca decandra (Poke.)
Arum triphyllum (Dragon root.)
Coptis trifolia (Gold thread.)
Arbutus uva ursi (Bear berry.)
Sanguinaria canadensis (Blood root.)
Geranium maculatum (Common crane's-bill.)
Triosteum perfoliatum (Fever root.)
Rhus vernix (Poison sumach or dogwood.)

The only plants therefore described by both these gentlemen, are the *Sanguinaria canadensis*, blood root or puccoon, and the *Triosteum perfoliatum*, feverwort, or fever root.

Let us see what is the value of the medical information presented by Dr. Barton's second and Dr. Bigelow's first number.

Magnolia glauca. It is an agreeable aromatic tonic bitter. So is the *Aristolochia serpentaria*: the *Contrayerva*: the *Cortex eleutheria*: the *Angustura*: the *Columbo*: the *Zedoary*, and many more equally trifling and useless; which of these does the *Magnolia* supersede either in quality or price?

Liriodendron Tulipifera. A tonic and sudorific. Sudorifics so frequently owe their virtues to the warm water employed in the decoction, that they possess, for the most part, very uncertain claims to their title. Is this plant better, if equal to the common decoction of the woods; sassafras, sarsaparilla, and mezerion? Dr. J. T. Young says, "I can assert from experience, there is not in all the materia medica a more certain, speedy, and effectual remedy in the hysteria, than the poplar bark combined with a small quantity of laudanum." So it is that young physicians write. In nine cases out of ten, what is usually called hysteria, arises from mere indigestion; sometimes, but seldom comparatively, from proper hysteric affections wherewith the digestive organs sympathise. At any rate, is not the active medicine here, the laudanum? Nei-

ther the one nor the other in a hysteric fit, is to be compared to a glass of hot toddy with nutmeg and ginger. Will the tulip tree do more than sage, or guaiacum?

Cornus sericea: a stimulant and tonic. Have we not at least twenty of equal power in use at present? Is it to be compared to the common barks, cinchona, eleutheria, winteranus, angustura, or even the common oak bark, neglected because it is so common?

Symplocarpus fœtida. An expectorant; and from its stinking character, an antispasmodic. We are already in possession of assafœtida, camphor, and musk. As to the Rev. Dr. Cutler's reports of it in asthma, unless the Rev. gentleman had informed us what was the description of asthma to which it was applied, it amounts to nothing. It is but rarely that we can place full reliance upon the professional relations even of medical men: the relations of gentlemen, who are not of the medical profession, do not carry with them any authority.

Symplocarpus fœtida angustispatha. The same remarks apply as to the preceding species.

Cassia marilandica. This amounts at best to a medicine of equal virtues with the common senna of the shops. If it can be afforded, as Dr. Barton says, at a fourth of the price, it would be of use; but of this, those who know the value of labour in this country will greatly doubt.

Hitherto, Dr. Barton's work has not presented us with any medicine that will supersede those of the same class commonly employed; and whose virtues and doses are well ascertained by extensive practice, and long experience. It may be of use, however, to show us, that the popular reputation of many plants highly spoken of, rests but on a very slight foundation, and that in the present state of the shops, they may well be neglected.

Dr. Barton's *descriptions uberiores*, are still liable to the same observations in this number, that were called forth in the review of the last. If he does not attend to the advice we took the liberty to offer, he may rely on it the character of the work will suffer.

Dr. *Bigelow* commences with the *Datura stramonium*, a plant of very decided properties as a poisonous narcotic, and likely therefore to be made useful in the hands of a cautious and judicious practitioner. But we have already so many medicines of this class, opium and its preparations, the poppy, hyoscyamus, belladonna, hemloc, digitalis, tobacco, arnica montana, hops, laurocerasus and others, that we have quite choice enough. It is however of some consequence to know that the use of *Datura stramonium* has relieved symptoms of the (spasmodic) asthma, unequivocally in the eastern states: and that it has been attended with success in chorea. Dr. Chapman's testimony to its use in dysmenorrhœa and siphilitic and scrophulous ulcers, is entitled to great consideration from the talents and extensive practice of the relator. The popular use of it in a salve, we well know to be inefficacious, nor is there any well settled reason for preferring it to the other medicines of the same class at present in use. But it is so power-

ful and so common, that experiments upon the application and exhibition of it, would still be desirable.

Eupatorium perfoliatum. This appears to be one of the feeble tonics and diaphoretics; without any decided character, and not worth further notice. We have already too many of them; medicines, that if they do you no good, will do you no harm, as the saying is. But the truth is, that few medicines are worth notice, that are not dangerous if incautiously exhibited. They promise to be useful in proportion to their violence and activity.

Phitolacca decandra. This is slightly emetic and cathartic; so slightly as to be worthless. We have taken it and seen it taken in large doses, as a remedy for rheumatism, with little effect. Its colour as ink, is an indelible dirty, dark brown, as we know. The red colour is fugitive with every known mordant. In page 43 it is said from the experiments of M. Braconnot, that the ashes when the plant is incinerated, afford 67 per cent of dried alkaline carbonate, and 42 of pure caustic potash. This is utterly incredible.

Arum triphyllum. It is impossible to say for what purpose this plant is introduced. The late Dr. Barton's recommendation of it in pthisis, had better have been omitted. He was apt to extol new articles of the vegetable materia medica, without much experience, or discrimination.

Coptis trifolia. Inferior to gentian and probably equal to columbo; not better than wormwood, or chamomile. It is no acquisition. We have cheap medicines of the same class, more efficacious. Columbo is of the same milk and water character with its introducer, Dr. Percival.

Arbutus uva ursi. This has been extolled in nephritic complaints, but without much reason. We have tried it largely. It is not quite so good as parsley root, or water-melon seeds, or daucus.

Sanguinaria canadensis. An unpleasant emetic, in large doses, not to be compared to ipecacuanha. It is used in the back country, infused in whiskey as a bitter: and as an excuse for dram-drinking in the morning.

Geranium maculatum, possesses virtues, about equal to those of kino, but far inferior to catechu. How can Dr. Bigelow say (p. 89,) that its doses are similar to those of kino and catechu, when the latter is so much more powerful and efficacious than kino? It ranks with the common blackberry root.

Triosteum perfoliatum produces the same effects with less certainty, and in an inferior degree to the ipecacuanha of the shops, and therefore will be no acquisition, until ipecacuanha fails to be supplied.

Rhus Vernix. Poison vine. Not useful as a medicine, possessing some of the qualities of a vegetable ink, and a black varnish: but inferior to the substances hitherto used for similar purposes.

In fact, the publications of Dr. Barton and Dr. Bigelow, so far as they have gone, only show that the substances they have introduced to our acquaintance, are little entitled to further notice. *Datura stramonium* may be an exception; we doubt, however,

whether this plant also, is not nearly worthless. On comparing these works with Woodville's, we see no cause of complaint. There is more care, more caution, more knowledge in the American works now under review. If our country does not produce plants of superior efficacy to those imported, it is not the fault of Dr. Barton or Dr. Bigelow; and it is of importance that we should know all that is worth knowing of the vegetables of our own country to which medicinal virtues are usually ascribed.

There are more chymical experiments on the plants introduced in Dr. Bigelow's than in Dr. Barton's work: but in fact, very little can be known of medicinal virtues from chymical analysis. Chymical investigations for the most part, are of use only to the pharmacopœist—the apothecary—the compounder of medicines: they are of use to indicate the methods of procuring and preserving the medical qualities of the plants in question, not to indicate those qualities. The chymical effects of a medicine on dead substances out of the body, is very different indeed from what they appear on living substances within the body. When a plant is introduced, however, in these works, the experiments that indicate its probable uses in the arts as well as in medicine, would be very acceptable. In this point of view Dr. Bigelow's book promises more than Dr. Barton's. The plates coloured under the inspection of the latter gentleman, are decidedly more delicate and artist-like than those of Dr. Bigelow, wherein the tints are laid on with a very heavy hand.

Dr. Barton and Dr. Bigelow have both described the plants *Sanguinaria canadensis*, and *Triosteum perfoliatum*. Our readers will require of us to enable them to judge of the comparative merits of these two publications, and therefore we present them with Dr. Barton's and then with Dr. Bigelow's, account of the latter plant.

TRIOSTEUM PERFOLIATUM.

FEVERWORT...RED-FLOWERED FEVER-ROOT.

Fever-root. Gentian. Bastard Ipecacuanha. Wild-Coffee. Dr. Tinker's weed. False Ipecacuan. White Gentian. Sweet-Bitter. Cinque. Perfoliate Fever-root.

TRIOSTEUM PERFOLIATUM. Lin. Sp. pl. 250. Amoen. acad. 4. p. 516. Dill. elth. 394. t. 293. f. 378. Mill. Dict. n. 1. Vahl. Symb. 3. p. 37. Gron. virg. ed. n. 31. Cold. noveb. 244. Willd. Sp. pl. Tom. i. p. 990. Shæpf. Mat. Med. Am. p. 23. Pers. vol. 3. p. 214. Ait. Hort. Kew. ed. 3. Vol. i. p. 381. Mich. Fl. Borealis. Am. vol. i. p. 107. Muhl. cat. Am. Sep. p. 23. Pur. fl. Am. Sep. vol. i. p. 162. Barton's "Collections," &c. vol. i. p. 29. Cox's Am. Disp. ed. i. p. 679. ed. 3d. p. 634. Barton's Prod. fl. Phil. p. 31. Elliot, fl. car. &c. Nuttall, Genera Am. Plants.

TRIOSTEUM.

TRIOSTEUM. Lin. *Cor.* monopetala, subaequalis. *Cal.* longitudine corollae. *Bacca* 3-locularis, 1-sperma, infera.

Nat. Syst. Juss. *Caprifolia*. Classis XI. Ordo III.

TRIOSTEUM. L.* *Calix* 5-fidus, laciniis lanceolatis persistentibus, basi bracteatus. *Corolla* vix calice longior, tubulosa 5-loba inaequalis. *Stamina* 5, non exserta. *Stigma* crassiusculis, *Bacca* coronata obovata 3-locularis, 3-sper-

ma. *Herbæ erectæ; foliorum petioli infra juncti; flores plurimi axillares sessiles.* Gen. Plant. de Juss. p. 211.

Classis *Pentandria*. Ordo *Monogynia*. Lin. Syst.

TRIOSTEUM PERFOLIATUM. T. foliis ovalibus acuminatis, basi abrupte angustatis, latius angustiusve connatis: axillis uni-plurifloris: corolla obscure purpurea. Mich. Fl. Boreal. Am. sub. synonym. T. maji.

SYNONYMA.

TRIOSTEUM majus. Mich. Fl. Boreali-Am. Vol. i. p. 107.

TRIOSTEUM foliis connatis, floribus sessilibus verticillatis. Vahl. symb. 3. p. 37.

TRIOSTEUM floribus verticillatis sessilibus. Mill. dict. n. 1.

TRIOSTEOSPERMUM, latiore folio, flore rutilo. Dill. elth. 394. t. 293. f. 378

Houttuyn Lin. Pl. Syst. 5. p. 612.

Breitblättriger Dreystein. Willd. (German.)

Habitat in America Septentrionali. 2/

Folia perfoliata. Willd. Sp. pl. Vol. i. p. 990.

Pharm. *Triostei Radix*.

Qual. amara. odor. pl. nauseosus; sapor herbaceus.

Vis. emetica.

Usus: febres intermittentes, pleuritis. Schœpf. Mat. Med.

DESCRIPTIO UBERIOR.

PLANTA bi vel tri-pedalis, aliquanto rara, et tota interdum purpurascens. Radix perennis, horizontalis, elongata. Caules multi, simplices, erecti, cylindrici. Folia magna, oblongo-ovalia, acuminata et fere connata, in basi panduriforma terminata. Versus apicem, basi attenuata et amplexicaules: omnes subtus dense pubescentes, cum nervis et costis conspicue prominentibus. Folia in summitate, sub florescentia, minora sunt, et convoluta; postquam magna et purpurascencia. Flores in axillis foliorum, verticillatæ apparentes. Corolla vix calice longior, tubulosa, curvata, basi gibbosa, et apice in quinque lobis auriculatis, incisa; lacinie cordatæ et clausæ. Stamina quinque, in tubo corollæ tecta: Pistillum ultra corollam; stigma crassiusculum. Lacinie calicis quinque, persistentes, lineares, ciliatæ, et omnino plerumque purpurascentes. Germen inferius, uno-bracteatum. Baccæ coronatæ, obovatæ, purpureo-coccineæ, tri-loculares, et semina tria dura complectens.

Barton's Flora Philadelphia, M. S.

‘**THE** root of *Triosteum perfoliatum* is perennial, horizontal, about eighteen inches or two feet long, three quarters of an inch in diameter, and nearly of a uniform thickness from the extremity to within two or three inches of the origin of the stems. At this place it is contorted, tuberculated, or gibbous, and of a brownish colour. The colour of the horizontal caudex is yellow-ochre without, and whitish internally; and the fibres which proceed from it, are of an ochroleucous hue. These are sometimes so large, that they may be considered rather as branches or forks of the main root. The plant is from two to three feet high, and bushy, several stems arising from the same root. In favourable situations I have seen it near four feet tall. The stems are about 3-8ths of an inch in diameter, simple, erect, cylindrical, pubescent, and of a green colour. The leaves are large, oblong-oval, acuminate, somewhat panduriform towards their base, where they become suddenly narrowed. They are mostly connate, until they approach the fourth pair from the top: these upper ones are more attenuated at their bases, and rather amplexicaule. The under surface of all the leaves is covered with a soft dense bluish-white pubescence, conspicuously apparent on the middle rib and nerves. On their upper surface, though the pubescence cannot be observed readily by the naked eye, it is discernible by the glass. more sparse than below. The nerves are numerous, and commonly al-

ternate, as respects their union with the costa. The two uppermost pairs of leaves are small and closely convoluted, while the plant is in flower. After the florescence is past, they are developed to the full size of the others, or become rather broader at their middle, and assume a brownish purple colour. I have sometimes observed the whole plant of this hue, though in general it is confined to the upper portion. The flowers are axillary, sessile, and arranged in triplets round the stem, appearing whorled. The corolla is reddish purple above, striated below with lake, blended into white, and every where covered with a dense pubescence. It is tubular, curved and widest at the top, where it is divided into five auriculated segments or lobes; the laciniae being cordate and closed on each other. The lower end of the tube terminates in an abrupt gibbosity, which is articulated with the germ. The stamens are five in number, inclosed within the corolla, and alternate with the lobes or laciniae. The pistil is somewhat longer than the stamens, and appears conspicuously above the corolla. Stigma oblong. The calix is composed of five linear segments obscurely ciliated on their margins, of a dark purplish colour, and half an inch long. The germ to which they are articulated, is beneath; and garnished with a single green bract, longer and broader than the calix leaves, and proceeding from its base. The berries succeed to the flowers, generally in the number of six to each axil; sometimes there are but three, but occasionally nine, in luxuriant plants. They are ovate, of a dark purple colour, with three divisions, and contain three hard seeds. They ripen in September.

This plant is somewhat rare, though I have seen it on the rocky limestone hills a little beyond the Maryland line, on the York and Baltimore road, in great quantities. It is also very frequent in the hilly woods bordering the Conestogo Creek, near Lancaster in Pennsylvania; and remarkably abundant in a thicket about one mile from the town of Lancaster, on the seat of Charles Smith, Esq. In the vicinity of Philadelphia it is very rare. Indeed I have only found it in a wild state, on the Schuylkill, near Lemon-hill. It delights in rich limestone soil, on rocky or stony ground, preferring the shade; but is often found in different situations. Its range is, from the northernmost state of New-England to Carolina; and probably further south. Flowers in June.

Medical Properties.—*Triosteum perfoliatum* is a mild cathartic, and it is for this virtue that the plant is here noticed. I am aware that Shoenp speaks of it as an emetic only, and alludes to its use in intermittent fevers and pleurisy. One of the common vulgar names also, *Bastard Ipecacuanha*, indicates the well-known emetic power which it unquestionably possesses. But it is only in large doses that vomiting is produced. In the quantity of twenty or thirty grains it is a good cathartic. It has been said on some occasions to operate as a diuretic;* but professor Barton who observed this effect, justly remarks that this may have been only an accidental circumstance, rhubarb having been known by C. Piso, to produce the same effect.† The part of the plant used for medical purposes, is the cortex, or bark of the root. When the root is dry, it is brittle, and is pulverised easily. Perhaps it is not necessary to separate the bark from the ligneous part; for in all likelihood the whole root is endued with the same medicinal property. The autumn is the proper time to collect the plant for use.

* Barton's "Collections."

† Ibid.

Economical Use.—I learned from the late Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg, that the dried and toasted berries of this plant, were considered by some of the Germans of Lancaster county, as an excellent substitute for coffee, when prepared in the same way. Hence the name of wild coffee, by which he informed me it was sometimes known.

TRIOSTEUM PERFOLIATUM.

Fever root.

‘This is rather a solitary plant, and though met with in most parts of the United States, it rarely, I believe, occurs in large quantities. About Boston it is found in several places at the borders of woods in rich, shady situations. Its common names are *Fever root* and *Wild ipecac*.* Pursh observes, that it is rare; and generally occurs in limestone soils. With us it flowers in June and ripens its fruit in September.

The genus *Triosteum* is found in the class *Pentandria* and order *Monogynia*. Its natural affinities place it among the *Aggregatæ* of Linnæus and the *Caprifolia* of Jussieu. It is characterised by a *monopetalous, five-lobed, unequal corolla; a calyx as long as the corolla; and a berry with three cells and three seeds*. The species *perfoliatum* differs from the rest, having its *leaves connate, and its flowers sessile and whorled*.

The root of this plant is perennial and subdivided into numerous horizontal branches. The stem is erect, hairy, fistulous, round, from one to four feet high. The leaves are opposite, the pairs crossing each other, connate, ovate, acuminate, entire, rather flat, abruptly contracted at base into a sort of neck, resembling a winged petiole. This portion varies in width, as Michaux has expressed it, “*foliis latis, angustiusve connatis*.” In general it is narrow when the plant is in flower, as represented in the figure; and wider when it is in fruit. The flowers are axillary, sessile, five or six in a whorl, the upper ones generally in a single pair. Each axil is furnished with two or three linear bractes. The calix consists of five segments which are spreading, oblong-linear coloured, unequal, persistent, Corolla tubular, curving, of a dull brownish purple, covered with minute hairs, its base gibbous, its border open and divided into five rounded, unequal lobes. Stamens inserted in the tube of the corolla, hairy, with oblong anthers. Germ inferior, roundish; style longer than the corolla; stigma peltate. The fruit is an oval berry of a deep orange yellow,† hairy, somewhat three sided, crowned with the calix, containig three cells and three hard, bony, furrowed seeds, from which the name of the genus is taken.

This plant was made the subject of an interesting communication to the Linnæan society of New England, by Dr. John Randall. The experiments made by him on its medical uses and pharmaceutical prepa-

* The quaint appellation of Dr. *Tinker's weed*, which has been bestowed on this plant, is thus gravely commented on by Poiret. “*Ses racines et celles de l'espece précédente passent pour émétiques; le docteur Tinkar est le premier qui les a mises en usage, et qui a fait donner à cette plante par plusieurs habitans de l'Amerique septentrionale le nom d'herbe sauvage du docteur Tinkar.*”

† Pursh observes that the flowers and berries are *purple*. In all the specimens I have examined, which have not been few in number, the fruit was of a bright orange colour. If Pursh has seen a plant with purple berries, it is probably a different species from the true plant of Linnæus and Dillenius: which had “*fructus lutescentes*.”

rations were numerous, and serve to throw much light on its properties. In trying the solvent powers of water and alcohol, he found that water afforded a much greater quantity of extract than alcohol, and that the spirituous extract was perfectly soluble in water, whence he infers that no resin in a pure state exists in the plant. He discovered no volatile oil by distillation, nor any other principle of activity in water distilled from the plant. He concludes also, that no free acid exists in this vegetable. Of the different parts submitted to examination, the leaves yielded the greatest quantity of soluble matter, but the root afforded that of the greatest activity. By decoction and evaporation with water an ounce of the dried stalks afforded one drachm of extract; an ounce of the dry roots, two drachms and two scruples, and the same quantity of leaves half an ounce. From a similar treatment of equal portions with alcohol, rather more than half the above quantities of extract were obtained.

The sensible qualities of the root were found essentially different from those of the herb. Both of them possess a large share of bitterness, but the root has also a nauseous taste and smell, somewhat approaching to those of ipecacuanha. The medical properties of the *Triosteum* are those of an emetic and cathartic. In the above dissertation, about thirty cases are detailed, in which different preparations and quantities of the article were given to various persons with a view to their medicinal effects. The general inference to be made from them is, that the bark of the root acts with tolerable certainty as an evacuant upon the alimentary canal, both by emesis and catharsis. When given alone, either in powder or decoction, the instances of its failure were not many, and when combined with calomel, its operation was attended with a certainty, hardly inferior to that of jalap. The aqueous and spirituous extract of the root were likewise efficacious, and nearly in an equal degree. Preparations made from different parts of the herb possessed much less activity, the decoction of the leaves operating only as a diaphoretic, and that of the stalk producing no effect.

The late professor Barton of Philadelphia, in his collections toward a *Materia Medica* of the United States, speaks of this plant as a mild and good cathartic, sometimes operating as a diuretic and in large doses as an emetic.

My own experience with this plant has not been extensive, yet sufficient to satisfy me of its medicinal power. Where I have administered it, it has generally proved cathartic, a larger dose however being requisite for this purpose, than of jalap or aloes. It has sometimes failed to produce any effect, and I am inclined to believe that its efficacy is much impaired by age. Those who may incline to employ it, will do well to renew their stock annually, and to keep the powder in close stopped phials.

A dose of the bark of the root in powder is twenty or twenty-five grains, and of the extract, a somewhat smaller quantity.

BOTANICAL REFERENCES.

Triosteum perfoliatum, LIN. *sp. pl.* AITON *Hort. Kew*, i. 234.—PURSH. i. 162.—*Triosteum majus*, MICHAUX, *Fl.* i. 107.—*T. floribus verticillatis, sessilibus*, GRONOV. 31.—*Triosteospermum latiore folio. flore rutilo*, DILLENII, *Elth.* t. 233. f. 373.

MEDICAL REFERENCES.

SCHÆFF, 23.—BART. *Copb.* 29.

ART. II.—*Travels in the Interior of America, in the years 1809, 1810, and 1811; including a Description of Upper Louisiana, together with the States of Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, and Tennessee, with the Illinois and Western Territories, and containing Remarks and Observations useful to Persons emigrating to those Countries.* By John Bradbury, Fellow of the Linnæan Society of London, Corresponding Member of the Liverpool Philosophical Society, and Honorary Member of the Literary and Philosophical Societies, New York, United States, America. Liverpool, printed for the Author, by Smith and Galway, and published by Sherwood, Neely, and Jones, London. 8vo. pp. 364.

IT is a curiosity natural to mankind, and particularly characteristic of minds aspiring after excellence, to desire to know the candid sentiments of others on matters that concern us, and the rank we hold in public estimation. The narratives of travellers contribute chiefly to the formation of that opinion, entertained by one people of another. If the sources of representation thus conveyed, be poisoned by prejudice or perverted by malice, an erroneous judgment must be formed, and the cause of truth is sacrificed at the shrine of hostility. When we meet with an impartial traveller, it is an acquisition to obtain his testimony. Of this description appears Mr. Bradbury; a plain, circumstantial writer, of no lofty pretensions, but deriving some title to attention, from the circumstance of having been selected, we understand, as a proper person, by the Linnæan Society, to make collections of botanical plants and seeds in the western hemisphere.

An introduction to Mr. Jefferson led our traveller to Monticello, where he was recommended to give a preference to the borders of the Mississippi for the prosecution of his labours. He proceeded accordingly to St. Louis, in Upper Louisiana, fourteen hundred miles above New Orleans, by the course of that river; and, subsequently, fifteen hundred miles farther, up the Missouri into the Illinois territory. Our naturalists will learn with interest, from Mr. Bradbury, that much yet remains to be done in the way of botanizing throughout those parts, that investigation would be amply repaid by the result, and that he passed a number of plants which may probably remain unknown for ages. Let us hope that he may be speedily followed up by others, actuated by equal enthusiasm and desire.

— juvat intactos accedere fontes,
Atque haurire, juvatque novos decerpere Flores.

The collection made during this excursion has been published in an appendix to the *Flora Americæ Septentrionalis*, but a catalogue of some of the more rare plants in the neighbourhood of St. Louis, and on the Missouri, is included, together with their *habitats*, in this publication.

There are many notices interspersed highly useful to those who contemplate a settlement in the remoter regions of the west, or desire to gather some information of the probable advantages attending the emigration of their connexions and friends to those parts. In addition to which, the politician may cull many facts of impor-

tance to his researches. Some extracts may be acceptable to our readers.

We could have wished that Mr. Bradbury had not adopted the form of a diary for the conveyance of information, as, though it may indicate a precision as to dates and facts, yet, in a book of travels, it is too frequently a vehicle for the detail of trifling incidents, uninteresting to graver readers, beside swelling the book to an unnecessary bulk, and enhancing the price, a high crime and misdemeanor in the literary code; since knowledge ought to be dispensed to as many classes of the community as possible, at the least possible expense. In the diffusion of information, we acknowledge no aristocracy; and nothing, perhaps, so much contributes to this evil, as books rendered unnecessarily costly.—It is with satisfaction we say it, that this is an offence confined, as yet, to the other side of the Atlantic.

We will appeal to Mr. Bradbury himself whether, on a revision of his book, he would not have wished such passages as these expunged:

P 43. '11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th May. We had a fair wind, and employed our sail, wherefore I could not go ashore without danger of being left behind. During these days the bread was examined, and being found wholly unfit for use, it was thrown overboard.

'Dorion, our interpreter, came, but without his squaw, who, it was intended, should accompany us. They had quarrelled, and he had beaten her, in consequence of which she ran away from him into the woods, with a child in her arms, and a large bundle on her back.

'22d, 23d, and 24th. Almost incessant rain. We had not proceeded more than two miles, when our interpreter beat his squaw severely, and on Mr. Hunt inquiring the cause, he told him that she had taken a fancy to remain at the Osages in preference to proceeding with us, and because he had opposed it, she had continued sulky ever since.'

This gossip we will allow Mr. Bradbury to write to his wife, if he pleases, but not to print and pass off for valuable information. So far as dates may serve as an index to the seasons, and state of the weather at particular seasons of the year, the expense of their introduction will be cheerfully submitted to by a discerning public; but not when they become registers of a man's individual concerns. A meteorological journal might advantageously have been substituted for some matter of this kind; but we do not find even an average notice of the thermometer in the book! Still, there is much worth knowing, of which we had no previous account.

'Two hundred and forty miles from the mouth of the Missouri, stand the remains of Fort Orleans: near it is the mouth of La Grand Rivière, where I first observed the appearance of *prairie*, on the alluvion of the river. *Prairie* is the term given to such tracts of land as are destitute of timber. In travelling west from the Alleghanies they occur more frequently, and are of greater extent, as we approach the Mississippi. When we proceed to the distance of two or three hundred miles west of that river, the whole country is of this description, which continues to the Rocky Mountains westward, and from the head waters of the Mississippi to near the Gulf of Mexico, an extent of territory which probably equals in area the whole empire of China. The territory west of

the Mississippi, belonging to the United States, and extending from that river to the Rocky Mountains has evidently two characters. The part which lies immediately on the Mississippi and extends from 100 to 250 miles westward from that river, has a thin covering of timber, consisting of clumps and of scattered trees. From the western limits of this region to the Rocky Mountains, the whole is one vast prairie, or meadow, and excepting on the alluvion of rivers, and, in a few instances, on the sides of the small hills, is entirely destitute of trees and shrubs. The extent of this region is not accurately known, on account of the real situation of the Rocky Mountains not being yet truly ascertained, but it appears from the account of hunters and travellers, that in some of our best maps and globes they are laid down considerably too far to the eastward. The course of the Mississippi is nearly from north to south, and its average longitude nearly 90° W. The coast of the Pacific, in the medium latitude of the Mississippi, from its source to its mouth, is about 130° W., a difference of 40° , making in that latitude the distance from the Mississippi to the Pacific to be 2124 miles. It is the opinion of all whom I have consulted, and who have crossed the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, that from the eastern limits of that chain to the Mississippi, the distance is at least twice as great as from the western limit to the Pacific.* If this is admitted to be correct, the distance from the summit of the Rocky Mountains to the Mississippi is 1416 miles, from which, if 150 be subtracted for the half breadth of the chain, and 200 for the woody regions on the Mississippi, the breadth of the prairie will appear to be 1066 miles and its length from north to south, is at least 18° of latitude, or 1251 miles.

‘Excepting towards the foot of the Rocky Mountains, the whole of this extent is what is usually termed a plain, being destitute of those elevations that in other parts appear to have resulted from convulsions.

‘6th April: walked all day, and, in the afternoon, met the hunters, who had found a bee tree, so named from its hollow trunk containing a swarm of bees, and were returning to the boat for a bucket and a hatchet to cut it down. I accompanied them to the tree: it contained a great number of combs, and about three gallons of honey. The honey bees have been introduced into this continent from Europe, but at what time, I have not been able to ascertain. Since they have entered upon the fine countries of the Illinois and Upper Louisiana, their progress westward has been surprisingly rapid. It is generally known in Upper Louisiana, that bees had not been found westward of the Mississippi prior to the year 1797. They are now found as high up the Missouri as the Mahanation, having moved westward to the distance of six hundred miles in fourteen years. Their extraordinary progress in these parts is probably owing to a portion of the country being prairie, and yielding therefore a succession of flowers during the whole summer, which is not the case in forests. Bees have spread over this continent in a degree, and with a celerity so nearly corresponding with that of the Anglo-Americans, that it has given rise to a belief, both among the Indians and the whites, that bees are their precursors, and that to whatever part they go, the white people will follow. I am of opinion that they are right, as I think it as impossible to stop the progress of the one as of the other.

‘23d May. When on the bluff† yesterday, I observed in the river an

* Mr. Melish asserts, that one branch of the Missouri rises within four hundred and fifty miles of the Pacific ocean.

† As the term bluff may not be familiar to every reader, an explanation may be serviceable. The alluvion of the great rivers west of the Alleghanies is consider-

extensive bend, and determined to cross the neck. I therefore did not embark with the boats, but filled my shot pouch with parched corn, and proceeded. In about two hours, I had entirely passed the range of hills forming the boundary of the Missouri; and, as I had before experienced, found the soil and face of the country to improve very much as we leave the river. The hills, with the intervening valleys, were covered with the most beautiful verdure. I continued to travel through this charming country, and shot several prairie hens (*tetrao umbellus*), on which I made an excellent supper. On reaching again the bluffs of the Missouri, among a number of new plants, I found a very fine species of *ribes*, or currant.²

It appears that the Missouri Fur Company trade with the Indians by means of agents scattered over the extreme west. The species of goods most in demand are rifles, powder, ball, knives and spirituous liquors. Mr. Bradbury has known more than 1000 pounds of jerked buffalo meat obtained in barter with the Sioux for as much rum as cost two dollars. The proper season for jerking buffalo meat is in autumn, when the quantity of tallow or fat is very great. It of course begins to diminish when food becomes scarce. As the same obtains in a number of animals, by climate and habit ordained to procure abundance of food in summer, and to suffer great privations in winter, this collection of fat seems to be a kind of reservoir, containing the means of supplying chyle, which is taken up by the absorbent vessels and returned into the system when necessary. The meat is cut into slices, exposed to the sun, until the juices are completely dried up, which is termed jerking, then packed away for use.

Of the state of medicine among the Indians, we have an account far too slender to satisfy our curiosities. With them the down of reedmace (*typha palustris*) is used in cases of burns or scalds. A species of *artemisia*, common on the prairies, and known to the hunters by the name of hyssop, attracted our author's notice; but a principal article in Indian pharmacy, according to his account, is a species of wall-flower, in character agreeing with *cheiranthus erysimoides*, beside which, two new species of *astragalus*, some roots of *rudbeckia purpurea*, and a new species of *amorpha*, used in cases of cholic, are mentioned.

In an appendix of nearly half the size of the book, we are presented with a specimen of Indian eloquence, certainly marked with some fine traits of feeling and sublime idea. It is an oration delivered by a warrior over the body of his deceased chief, in presence of the American officers, who had caused military honours to be paid at the funeral, which they attended with a detachment of troops under their command.

ably lower than the surrounding country, and is of a breadth nearly in the ratio of the magnitude of the river. That of the Missouri is from two to six or eight miles in breadth, and is, for the most part, from one hundred and fifty to three hundred feet below the general level of the country. The ascent from this valley into the country is precipitous, and is called "the bluff." It may consist of rock or clay. Betwixt these bluffs the river runs, in a very crooked channel, and is perpetually changing its bed, as the only permanent bounds are the bluffs.

‘Do not grieve—misfortunes will happen to the wisest and the best of men. Death will come and always comes out of season;—it is the command of the Great Spirit, and all nations and people must obey. What is passed, and cannot be prevented, should not be grieved for. Be not discouraged or displeased then, that in visiting your father here, you have lost your chief. A misfortune of this kind may never again befall you, but this would have attended you perhaps at your own village. Five times have I visited this land, and never returned with sorrow or pain. Misfortunes do not flourish particularly in our path—they grow every where. (*Addressing himself to governor Edwards and colonel Miller.*) What a misfortune for me that I could not have died this day, instead of the chief that lies before us. The trifling loss my nation would have sustained in my death, would have been doubly paid for by the honours of my burial—they would have wiped off every thing like regret. Instead of being covered with a cloud of sorrow—my warriors would have felt the sunshine of joy in their hearts. To me it would have been a most glorious occurrence. Hereafter, when I die at home, instead of a noble grave and a grand procession, the rolling music and the thundering cannon, with a flag waving at my head, I shall be wrapped in a robe, (an old rope perhaps) and hoisted on a slender scaffold to the whistling winds, soon to be blown down to the earth—my flesh to be devoured by the wolves, and my bones rattled on the plain by the wild beasts. (*Addressing himself to colonel Miller.*) Chief of the soldiers—your labours have not been in vain:—your attention shall not be forgotten. My nation shall know the respect that is paid over the dead. When I return I will echo the sound of your guns.’

On the subject of a route to the Pacific, we have some interesting views presented, though perhaps somewhat conjectural, or at least not supported by the direct testimony we could desire. The author accompanied a party bound on that expedition, for several hundred miles. Five of the men engaged in it had traversed the rocky mountains in various directions, and the question of the best possible route in which to cross them was frequently agitated. They all agreed that the route pursued by Lewis and Clarke was very far from being the best, and that to the southward, where the Platte and Roche Jaune rivers rise, they had discovered one far less difficult. This information induced the leader, a Mr. Hunt, to alter the plan of his course, which had originally been to ascend the Missouri to the Roche Jaune river, 1850 miles from the mouth, and at that place he purposed to commence his journey by land. It was afterwards concluded that it would be more advisable to abandon the Missouri at the Aricara Town, 450 miles lower down the river.

A journey across the American continent, according to the information of hunters and others, appears by no means so arduous if shaped more to the southward. Mr. Brackenridge, in his “Views of Louisiana” corroborates this opinion.

“The route taken by Lewis and Clarke across the mountains was, perhaps, the very worst that could have been selected. Mr. Henry, a member of the Missouri company, and his hunters, have discovered several passes, not only very practicable, but even in

their present state, less difficult than those of the Alleghany mountains. These are considerably south of the source of Jefferson river. It is the opinion of the gentleman last mentioned, that loaded horses, or even wagons, might in its present state, go in the course of six or eight days, from a navigable point on the Columbia, more easy than between those on the heads of the Ohio, and the Atlantic states. Mr. Henry wintered in a delightful country, on a beautiful navigable stream.

“An attempt is now making to form establishments on the Columbia, with what success is not yet much known. This has been undertaken by a company in the city of New-York, at the head of which we find Jacob Astor. Two vessels were despatched for the mouth of the river, with orders to commence an establishment. A party of about eighty men under the command of Wilson P. Hunt, and a brother of sir Alexander Mackenzie, who was formerly in the employment of the north west company, has proceeded across the mountains.”

The principal object of this company at present, is the establishment of a fur trade direct with China. The beaver, the valuable sea otter, and the fine furs which may be obtained in this country in great quantities, will undoubtedly produce considerable profits. To introduce returns into the United States across the rocky mountains, will be worthy of experiment. A shortening of the distance, by more than a thousand leagues, will certainly make it an object to lessen the expense and difficulty of transporting goods across the mountains and down the Missouri. It is satisfactory to add, that the colony at present forming, is under the protection and license of our government.

The mineral productions of the Illinois and Missouri territories afforded an abundant harvest for speculation and description, of which Mr. Bradbury has moderately availed himself. Extensive veins of iron ore abound on the Missouri, sufficient to supply the whole of North America with iron for many generations, and when we consider the abundance of coal, it warrants a presage that these objects will become, perhaps at no distant day, of vast national importance.

The lead mines on the Mississippi furnish a considerable freight to New Orleans. Mr. Bradbury is of opinion, that the lead extends to a very great distance beyond the limits of the *diggings*, which hitherto have been considered as comprising the mines. “I have seen,” he observes, “all the indications on the upper part of the Merrimac river, fifty or sixty miles west of the present workings, and still farther to the northward, at the mouth of the Gasconade, on the Missouri. It is supposed by some that it extends to the mines belonging to the Saukee and Fox nations of Indians, which are situated on the Mississippi, six hundred miles above St. Louis. These mines are known to extend over a space of eighty miles in length, and nine miles in breadth.

About fourteen miles west of the Ohio Saline, in the Illinois territory, there is a lead mine lately discovered. Some small excavations have been made, and a quantity of galena found.

The caves yielding saltpetre are found chiefly on Green, Tennessee, and Cumberland rivers, and afford this article in great abundance. Salt abounds in various parts of the western country. It is worthy of notice that gypsum and clay are found together with the salt deposit.

"Some of the isolated sand stone rocks are remarkable for their purity, being so white as to resemble exactly the purest lump sugar. These would furnish an excellent material for the manufacture of glass. When the subterranean geography of this country shall become better known, it will probably be found to be one of the most interesting in the world."

Such a declaration from one qualified to conduct mineralogical inquiries, is highly important, and affords an unbounded prospect of future national wealth and resources. Succeeding geologists may do much. Fortunately for the progress of the pursuit, it is susceptible of division into many different departments, several of which are capable of being extended by mere observation. To reduce the general and grand arrangements of nature to a system, demands a total devotion of time and an acquaintance with almost every branch of experimental and general science, and can be performed only by philosophers; but the facts necessary to this great end may be collected without much labour, and by persons attached to various pursuits and occupations; the principal requisites being minute observation and faithful record. The miner, the quarrier, the surveyor, the engineer, the collier, the iron smelter, and even the traveller in search of general information, have all opportunities of making geological observations; and whether these relate to the metallic productions, ores, rocks, strata, or coal of any district, to the appearances and forms of mountains, the directions of rivers, and the nature of lakes and waters, they are worthy of being accurately noticed. Mineralogical maps of districts might thus be supplied, an object of importance to the scientific world, and a fund of practical information might be obtained, applicable to purposes of public improvement and utility.

Let us now hear Mr. Bradbury's opinion of emigration to the scene of his labours, on which he may be expected to be good authority. "There is no part" says he, "of the western country that holds out greater advantages to the new settler than the Missouri territory. It is inferior to none in point of soil or climate, and has a decided advantage over the country on the Ohio, as the transit to New Orleans may be made at any season of the year; whereas the Ohio is not navigable during the months of August, September, and October. It is also from 600 to 1000 miles nearer to that city than the upper part of the Ohio. Opportunities of purchasing settlements or plantations already formed, are very frequent, and on very moderate terms, as the rage of retiring back prevails here in as great a degree as in the other new countries.

"St Louis, the capital of this territory, is very pleasantly situated on the Mississippi, about eighteen miles below the mouth of the Missouri, in latitude 38 degrees 5 minutes, and longitude 89

grees 55 minutes W. It has a decided advantage over all the other towns, on account of its being situated on a rock but little elevated above the high floods of the river, and immediately on its border. Such situations are rare, as the Mississippi is almost universally bounded either by high perpendicular rocks or loose alluvial soil, the latter of which is in continual danger of being washed away by the annual floods.

In the reclaiming of wild land, or the forming of a plantation from a state of nature, the trouble and labour here is much less than in the woody regions, as the trees in this quarter are not more abundant on the upland than would be necessary for fuel and for fences. They naturally stand at a sufficient distance from each other to admit a fine undergrowth of grass and herbage. This country, as well as the whole western territory, will reap incalculable benefit from the application of steam-boats on the Mississippi. Of these several are now building in the different ports of the Ohio, a mode of conveyance which will also be much facilitated by the abundance of coal so universally spread over these parts.

In an agricultural point of view, the westward may be divided into three regions, suitable for the culture of the great staple articles, sugar, cotton, and corn. The sugar region extends from the coast to latitude $31\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; the cultivation of this article is rapidly increasing, and many of the planters have already made large fortunes.

‘The region proper for the cultivation of cotton, and too cold for that of the sugar-cane, extends from $31\frac{1}{2}$ to about 36 degrees of latitude: the species cultivated is *Gossypium annuum*. It will grow many degrees north of 36; but will not yield a sufficient crop, nor is the cotton so good, for the following reasons:—of the pods containing the cotton, the terminal pods of the principal branches are the first ripe: the next in succession are those of the secondary branches, which are followed by those of the tertiary ones, &c. &c.; but in each successive generation, the number is increased in something like the ratio of a geometrical progression. In the northerly part of the cotton region, the winter comes on before the cotton in the pods on the lateral branches is ripe, and a great portion of the crop is destroyed, which a few degrees further south would have been ripened. But the avarice of some planters prompts them to continue the gathering of their crops too long, and the quality of their cotton is deteriorated thereby, as the sun is too feeble to give the last part of their crop sufficient strength. The culture of the cotton plant is not attended with much trouble. The seeds are planted from 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet asunder; and after the plants have acquired a little strength, they are weeded and earthed up: no further care is required until the gathering of the pods commences. The cotton is then separated from the seeds by a machine, called the *saw gin*.

‘From observation I am led to believe that the staple of cotton is sometimes injured in the gin; and as this machine is now universally used to separate the cotton from the seed, I shall describe it. The saws are circular, about six or eight inches in diameter, they are made of thin steel plate, and are toothed like those used for cutting wood,

excepting that they make a more acute angle with the radii. Twenty-four, thirty, thirty-six, or more of these saws are placed on an iron shaft, at about one inch asunder. This shaft is fixed in a frame, three feet, or three feet six inches high, and parallel to it is placed a trough, not unlike a manger. One side of the trough is composed of thin plates of iron, exceeding in number that of the saws by one. This admits one of these plates betwixt each two saws, and they are so near each other as barely to admit the saw to pass between them. A fourth part of the saw works within the trough. Beneath the saws a cylindrical brush turns the same way, but with greater velocity. On the end of the shaft on which the saws are, there is a fast and a loose pulley for driving the machine, with a belt for stopping it at pleasure. When the gin is intended to be set to work, a quantity of cotton, as taken from the pods, is thrown into the trough, and the belt is put on the fast pulley. The saws, in passing through the troughs, continue to load their teeth with cotton, which is instantly thrown off by the brush, and in a few minutes nothing remains in the trough but bare seeds. The management of this gin is mostly committed to negroes, who, anxious to finish their task, drive the machine with too great velocity, by which, I conceive, not only the staple of the cotton is injured, but the green lumps, which are in fact the abortive seeds, are broken, and carried through along with the cotton. From this cause, in a great measure, arises the difference of quality of cotton from the same plantation.

‘As there are public gins established in almost every part, to which a planter may take his cotton, and have it cleaned and packed on moderate terms, it is in the power of a poor man to turn cotton-planter; and if he has a numerous family, so much the better, as females, and even children, can be employed in gathering the pods, and in taking the cotton from them. If he settles on wild land, he can enter upon the culture of cotton with more facility than on any other crop, as the ground requires less preparation.

‘This part of Louisiana as yet contains but very few white settlers, although, for the most part, the soil is excellent, and the climate charming. Two very large rivers, Red River and the Arkansas, enter the Mississippi in this region, and run their whole course through it: they are both navigable to the confines of the internal provinces of New Mexico, and furnish to those parts the best means of communication with the ocean. Of these means, when Mexico shall break its chain, it will avail itself, and this will become one of the richest and most valuable parts of the United States.’

“I must pronounce the soil to be excellent, and in almost every part where I saw it in a state of nature, it was covered with the finest verdure imaginable. The stratum immediately below the vegetable soil is almost universally a very tenacious clay, and extremely well calculated to form a material for brick.

“The lands belonging to the United States Government are sold at one uniform price: viz. two dollars per acre at five year's credit, or one dollar sixty-four cents for cash. Opportunities frequently offer for purchasing from the *back-wood's-man* what he calls his *improvement*, which consists perhaps of a log-house, a peach, and perhaps an apple orchard, together with from ten to thirty or forty acres of land inclosed and mostly cleared.”

The following remarks are worthy of particular notice.

"It is necessary to recollect that in the early part of the settlement of a country like this, a great number of things occur necessary to be done, which require the united strength of numbers to effect." p. 318.

"A great number of farmers have more land inclosed in fence than they can well manage: ask one of these the reason, he replies 'I want help.' Emigrants are urgently required, and if there can be any doubt of the wants of the country in this respect, its solution is to be here found.

"There are many objects, such as roads, bridges, &c. all of which are much sooner effected by persons having an union of interest, and of course an union of action.

"A combination of labour in numbers for the benefit of one individual is not confined to the new comer only, it occurs frequently among the old settlers, with whom it is a continued bond of amity and social intercourse, and in no part of the world is good neighbourhood found in greater perfection than in the western territory, or in America generally." Additional testimony of this kind in favour of the disposition of the inhabitants will be read with pleasure. We cannot refrain from introducing some equally creditable to the impartiality of the narrator and the character of our country.

Page 305. "*I have travelled near 10,000 miles in the United States, and never met with the least incivility or affront. I feel myself bound by gratitude and regard to truth to speak of their hospitality. In my travels through the inhabited parts of the United States, not less than 2000 miles was through parts where there were no taverns, and where a traveller is under the necessity of appealing to the hospitality of the inhabitants. In no one instance has my appeal been fruitless, although in many cases the furnishing of a bed has been evidently attended with inconvenience, and in many instances, no remuneration would be received. Other European travellers have experienced this liberal spirit, and some have repaid it by calumny. In respect to their moral character, my experience reaches chiefly to the western, middle, and some of the southern states. In the western states, I noticed that very few of the houses in which I slept, had either locks or bolts on the doors, and that the jails were in general without a single tenant.*

"It has already been observed that no people discharge the social duties, as respects the character of neighbours, better, and I believe no country, having a population equal to the United States, can exhibit the records of their courts containing fewer instances of crimes committed against the laws."

Mr. Birkbeck, an English farmer, whose notes on a journey to the Illinois territory we had occasion to remark upon in our last number, fully seconds this opinion of his countryman in every respect. He says, "but, what is most at variance with English notions of the American people, is the urbanity and civilization that prevail in situations remote from large cities. In our journey from Norfolk on the coast of Virginia, to this place, in the heart

of the Alleghany mountains, we have not for a moment lost sight of the manners of polished life. Refinement is unquestionably far more rare than in our mature and highly cultivated state of society, but so is vulgarity. In every department of common life, we here see employed persons superior in habits and education to the same class in England."

Again:

"of all the unfavourable imputations on the American character, jealousy of strangers is surely the most absurd and groundless. The Americans are sufficiently alive to their own interest, but they wish well to strangers; and are not always satisfied with wishing, if they can promote their welfare by active services."

Page 103. "I have good authority for contradicting a supposition that I have met with respecting the inhabitants of Indiana, that they 'are a lawless, semi-barbarous people, dangerous to live among.' On the contrary, the laws are respected, and effectual, and the manners of the people are kind and gentle to each other and to strangers."

Page 123. "We are at Princeton in Indiana, a town which will be soon three years old. The people belong to old America in dress and manners, and would not disgrace old England in the general decorum of their deportment. It can boast as many well informed genteel people, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as any county town I am acquainted with, and there is not one decidedly vitious character, nor one that is not able and willing to maintain himself."

In passing from Mr. Birkbeck, we would express our anticipation of much solid benefit from his experience and conduct in the parts where he has settled. He is a man, we should judge, of vigorous and enlarged mind. His recommendation in favour of associations, as the surest means to prevent disappointment to emigrants and advance the interests of the whole, has our entire concurrence. On this point too he confirms the preceding remarks of Mr. Bradbury.

As emigration is now a theme of very general interest, publications tending to throw any light upon the subject, will be read with avidity, when they communicate information equivalent to the expense of their purchase. For the details we must refer to the works themselves. We collect, generally, that a settlement in the Missouri or the Illinois territory is preferable, *ceteris paribus*, in the ratio of its distance from that great mart of western produce, New Orleans—that, without some capital for the purchase of land, the emigrant unless he be a mechanic, or an associate with others, might repent the cost of his journey; and moreover that, if he look for present gain from agricultural pursuits only, he will infallibly be disappointed. He can only expect that the extent and period of his reward will be proportioned to the exertions of his industry, and the scale of his "improvements," together with the growth of population, and the demand for cleared lands. To bring wood land into a state of cultivation, he must expect to undergo many hardships and endure many privations, but the state of ease, secu-

riches, and independence, which will assuredly attend the patient efforts of sober industry, must in due season arrive to compensate past toils.

That produce of every kind of the nature of provision will, for a very long time, remain low, must be calculated upon from the following considerations. First, the distance from a foreign market, causing a great expense in exportation. Secondly, the predominance of scattered population employed in farming over that which is condensed in towns; and thirdly, the vast quantities of land remaining west of the Alleghanies still unoccupied; yet, the accumulation of property by the regular and rapid advance in the value of land, forms more than an equivalent to the savings of the labourer or mechanic. Upon these terms, he may make up his mind, and look for the illustration of the truth in the testimony of every candid man acquainted with that country.

On the whole, we are disposed to look favourably upon Mr. Bradbury's labours, and to encourage him to pursue a path so happily chosen, as that of developing the resources of the highly promising region he describes.

His book compressed into half of its present size, would bear a reprint in this country—devoided of common-place matter, and directed solely to purposes of superior utility. He has chosen a wide field, and his design is worthy of an active, enterprising, enlightened mind. If our countenance can cheer his laudable endeavours, he will carry with him its smiles, and if one ray of consolation be wanting to kindle zeal, he will find it in the increasing interest of the public in these inquiries, and, in connexion with his own immediate benefit, the growing magnitude and decided importance of the consequences involved in this subject.

ART III.—*Outline of the Revolution in Spanish America; or an account of the origin, progress, and actual state of the war carried on between Spain and Spanish America, containing the principal facts which have marked the struggle.* By a South American.

Fata viam invenient. Æn. lib. 10.

THE perusal of this "outline," has altered in a great measure our view of the contest in South America. Hitherto the unconnected, and, indeed, very limited information we possessed on the subject of the existing war in that country, prevented our forming as correct an idea as to the probable result as could be desired. Our wish has always been, to be able to predict with some degree of certainty, the termination in favour of the South Americans, of the second war in America, that has had independence for its object. We are, perhaps, more sanguine on the subject, than is consistent with the facts heretofore known to us; but we feel considerably more confident, since the perusal of this work, that our wishes may be gratified at no very distant day.

We feel a sensible pleasure in the view, and the imagination hardly knows where to stop, when the result of so many free establishments as are about to take place in South America, is taken into consideration: when we view the advancement that knowledge is likely to

receive; and, think of the accession which human happiness will derive from the amelioration of government. To the inhabitants of the United States, the spectacle of an oppressed people, endeavouring to become free and happy, must always be gratifying. The attention of a free people, cannot but be excited by events in themselves so likely to call forth sympathy, and doubly interesting in a political point of view, from the circumstance of a former similarity of situation, and the prospect of a like termination. The impression on the mind is increased by the knowledge, that they look to us as a people, once suffering and oppressed like themselves, now free and happy, in consequence of a successful resistance to tyranny. To Europe, the South Americans cannot look for sympathy, still less for assistance in a struggle for freedom; the dead palsy of despotism has seized on all; even in England, liberty is just about to expire. They must rely on themselves, and, in spite of the obstacles arising from three hundred years of Spanish despotism, work out their own salvation. We have no doubt of the fact of their ability, though we admit, that the view of affairs derived from the perusal of this little work before us, is by no means at first sight, encouraging. Still, however, we do not despair: for though dissention is a greater foe to a country endeavouring to shake off the yoke of an oppressive "mother country," than even a defective organization of the means of resistance; and though it may be said, that it is still likely to continue its baleful influence over the political destiny of the South Americans; yet we do not think, that the admission of the fact would be at all conclusive as to the question of independence. They have done too much already in spite of every disadvantage; individual exertion alone, has performed almost enough to permit the new republics to be numbered among the nations of the earth. Their distance from Spain, their visible improvement in political science, *their knowledge that they can be free*, all, if fairly considered, lead to the conclusion, that the event will take place whenever they will it. It is true, their progress has been retarded; and it will not be a difficult matter to account for the fact. Having reference generally to the circumstances attending our own struggle, we are rather apt to think a certain degree of political information as *absolutely* necessary to insure the success of a revolution. We are sanguine or not, in proportion to the degree of information that we suppose is possessed by a people of whose case we are judging. And it is true, that the information of a political nature, possessed by the people of the United States, before the commencement of the revolution, did enable them to interest the best and wisest men of the country we were resisting in our behalf. We will admit also, that *their* approbation was in itself support; and drew along with it, the admiration and assistance of some of the most powerful states in Europe; and that, with their help, we were still a long time in becoming free. These circumstances do not alter our opinion of the result of the contest in South America. Let us consider that the contest has continued long; but let it also be remembered, that Spain is *unequal* to

the task of subduing the patriots; and the fact is all important in forming an opinion. Kept in profound ignorance, as far as possible, by the Spanish government, considered as a degenerate race, and told by the country claiming their obedience, that* "it was unsuitable to promote learning in Spanish America, where the inhabitants appear destined by nature to work in the mines," the South Americans seem to have met with no sympathy in the "mother country," and to be but little noticed by the other powers of Europe. France indeed, under Bonaparte, intended to have used them as part of the means employed to subdue Spain; and England, seems to have once considered them, as objects of commercial cupidity. Abused at home, neglected abroad, they have shown a courage and perseverance worthy of a better fate—we trust it awaits them. They have also shown that they possess ample means for revenge and emancipation; success has generally attended their exertions, and little appears to be wanting to complete their wishes. The "passion of noble minds"—the desire of serving one's country, exhibits itself only in one way; they fight—and fight bravely too—but seem rather forgetful, that something more is requisite, than mere resistance to tyranny. The sacrifice of party feelings is to be made, before the efforts of valour can have their full weight, and we are sorry to say, that, at present we rather hope than look for such a degree of self-denial as is necessary for the purpose of producing union. But though we may regret the effect of dissension, yet we think, that the effects to be attributed to it, relate only to the retarding of the progress of South America in political science, as well as in the work of deliverance; and we do not think, that the result of the contest will be altered as regards old Spain. We have, however, exceeded the limits we had proposed to ourselves in noticing this work; the subject has long been an interesting one, but at present, we offer only the obvious reflections suggested by its perusal. We suppress our conjectures on the probable effect of the operation of South American independence, on our commerce and foreign policy; as conjectures, they are foreign to the view we are taking of the subject before us. We shall briefly, however, notice the nature and style of the present work. It is a connected narrative of the events that have taken place in that country, since the first appearance of any desire on the part of the inhabitants to do something towards ameliorating their condition. The moderation exhibited in relating the occurrences, and the information collected, with regard to the views and feelings of the South Americans, since the year 1780, will secure the work a favourable reception from the rational politician. The style we shall only notice, to say, that, criticism is disarmed by the circumstance of the author's appearing in a foreign dress; and, by his acknowledgment, that a correct taste will find much to pardon.

* Report made to the king by his Fiscal, on the petition of the city of Merida de Maracaybo, in Venezuela, to found a university.

A race of monkeys, filled with vice and ignorance, automatus, unworthy of representing, or being represented. Report of the Consulado of Mexico to the Cortes of Spain.

ART. IV.—*North West Passage.*

REASONING from the structure of the globe, individuals have, at different times, entertained the project of a discovery of a north west passage to Asia from Europe. The promise of advantages attending this scheme has sufficed to overcome the objections made to it, on account of the sufferings to be endured, the restricted season of a summer voyage, and the dangers of a frozen sea. To recount the several expeditions that have been set on foot for the purpose of this discovery, would be equally tedious and unprofitable. The most adventurous of these, appears to have been that of the British vessels *Dobbs* and *California*. The officers of the latter vessel being detached in the boats, reported, that they had found an inlet in the latitude of 64° N., and in the longitude of 32° E. from *Marble island*, which was three or four leagues wide at the entrance, but, on their sailing eight leagues up it, increased to six or seven leagues wide: that their course so far was N.N.W. by compass, but then it began to turn more to the westward; that, sailing ten leagues higher, it grew more narrow by degrees, till it became but four leagues wide; that, notwithstanding they could perceive the shores opening again, they were discouraged from proceeding farther, because that the waters, from being salt, transparent, and deep, with steep shores and strong currents, grew fresher, thicker and shallower at that height; that they met on their passage with many of the *Esquimaux*, who, for a trifle, had supplied them with a considerable quantity of fresh venison, and would have procured them more, as well as train oil, of which they had abundance, if they could have spared time. The issue of this inlet is unknown, but, it is probable, may have some communication with a great lake within land, having another outlet of the like nature, into the great western ocean. One circumstance, which they took notice of, gives some weight to this conjecture, viz., that the stream of ebb run faster by one half than in the *Thames*, for ten hours in twelve, though it was upwards of twelve miles broad, and for the last two hours the flood caused the water to stand still. And though the freshness of the water may seem conclusive against a passage, yet if it had been quite fresh, upon the surface, it would have been far from being so, because, as then it was the season when the snows melt and drain off the land, such a circumstance might have been expected, and is no more than what is found in the *Baltic*, and on the western coasts of *Africa*, after the rainy months. In the last place, it may be remarked, that though the tide of flood, coming from the west, might have afforded proof of a passage to another sea, yet a flood from the east is by no means such an absolute and direct proof to the contrary, because it is well known that, in the *Straits of Magellan*, the tides from the two oceans meet one another, and there is good reason to believe, that whenever a discovery is made of a north west passage, the like will also be found there.

A captain Fox, of the north west company, encouraged these adventures, by asserting that there might be an open sea, as at Cape Pinmark, which has not yet been disproved.

Ellis places the passage at a considerable inlet in latitude 64° , called Chesterfield's Inlet, though with no degree of certainty. He maintains his position by observing that, on examination, the ebb there set in very strong from the westward for eight hours; whereas it flowed but two; and with a motion incomparably slower. At the distance of ninety miles from the entrance, the water, though fresher than the ocean, had yet a very strong degree of saltness; now, if there was no passage, and the water ran down eight hours, at the rate of six miles an hour, and ran up only two hours, at the rate of two miles an hour, the water ought to have been perfectly fresh; since, as no salt water went up for more than two hours, none ought to have come down after two hours ebb, even if the ebb had been as slow as the flood; but as it was much more rapid, it ought to have been fresh sooner. It is certain, that, if a tide of flood had been met coming from the westward, it would have afforded an incontestible proof of a passage; yet the tide from the eastward does not prove the contrary; since, as before observed, the same occurs in the straits of Magellan, where the tide flows half-way from the eastward, and is there met by a flood from the west.

Another place assigned by Ellis for the discovery of this passage is Repulse Bay: the reasons in support of which are, the depth, saltness, and transparency of the water, together with the height of the tide propagated from thence, which circumstances seem to countenance such an expectation.

So far we are left to mere hypothesis. A Spanish author writes much more decisively, and professes to give an account of the transit being made to within sight of the coast of Asia. The extract has been handed to us by a learned friend, of which we insert a translation. "*Political History of the Ultramarine establishments of European Nations, by Edward Malo, of Lugue, duke of Almodovar*," in 5 vols. Madrid, 1788. Vol. 4, page 584.

We will conclude this last chapter with the notice of an unpublished Narrative of a Voyage undertaken for the purpose of discovery, which surpasses in importance all that has been said in the four preceding chapters on so interesting a topic.

It is that of a voyage of captain Don Lorenzo Ferrer of Maldonado, in 1588, from the coasts of Spain to the straits of Anian, with his pilot, John Martinez, a native of Algarve, in Portugal. Sailing from Lisbon, he shaped his course to the north west, as far as the coast of Labrador, then passing Davis' straits, he found himself in the 75^{th} of latitude, in the frozen ocean, and steering west, one-fourth south, he entered the straits of Anian, which, according to his journal, is distant from Spain 1750 leagues by that navigation; from which he got into the southern ocean about 60° .

According to his observations, in going, he traversed the strait in February, and passed its outlet in March, during which he

suffered excessively in consequence of the cold weather, obscurity of atmosphere, and ice.

On returning, in the months of June and July, he enjoyed much fairer weather, and when he had passed the arctic circle at 66 degrees and 30 minutes, until beyond the straits of Labrador, the sun never disappeared from the horizon, and the heat was oppressive.

In the Pilots' Journal, the route is precisely laid down, the currents, soundings, and winds, as also the appearance of the coasts of Asia and America are well described.

In some points the course agrees with the observations made in Cook's voyage, and in other respects widely differs; for instance, that navigator placed the strait in 60 degrees, whereas it is ascertained to be in 66, a very remarkable difference.

It is impossible to establish an affinity between this voyage and others which have been attempted. It is indeed surprising how captain Ferrer could reach such a degree of altitude by this side of the globe locked in immense masses of ice. It is difficult to reconcile the identity of the outlet to the strait with the least resemblance that can be drawn from the narrow passages of that one in the north which is not half a mile wide; that which empties itself to the south is more than a quarter of a league, and expands as it draws nearer to the coast—a circumstance not at all conformable; on the contrary, it is entirely opposite to what the strait really is, its mean breadth being at least thirteen leagues.

The difficulty can only be resolved by supposing that the strait was not understood to be that of Anian, or that Ferrer must have gone to some other river that traverses a certain portion of the continent, facilitating his passage, and probably it was at the entrance of Norton or Cook's river, or some other passage of those latitudes of which we have no exact accounts.

The voyage of Ferrer carries with it all the characters of authenticity, he having neither interest nor motive for fiction, nor being acquainted with those observations which are to be found in the apocryphal relation of admiral Fonte, still unpublished, and buried in the dust of royal archives, experiencing that fate which unhappily befalls many others, through negligence and the mysterious principles of our own government.

The British legislature in 1746, offered a reward of twenty thousand pounds to any person who should discover this passage. Two vessels were fitted out by a private company, trading up Hudson's straits, and an adequate sum raised for the purpose by shares of 100 pounds each, but the scheme proved abortive.

For the guidance of future navigators, we subjoin a few hints calculated to aid their endeavours in this important object.

Steer your course to the entrance of Hudson's strait, and make any part of the north west coast from Pilot bay, in 62 degrees 30 minutes to Wager straits, touch at Deer sound in that strait, or at Marble island, in case the winds are more favourable, and the sea clear of ice. On falling in with land on that coast try the

direction and time of tide; and in case of meeting the flood from the westward, should you find a fair opening clear of the ice, sail into it with caution, keeping your boat ahead. In case you meet the flood tide, upon getting into an open sea, there will be strong probability of a passage, then steer south-westerly keeping the American coast in view.

If you find a south west tide of flood, after passing as far as 62 degrees north latitude beyond Wager strait, then you may be sure you have passed the most northerly cape of the north west continent of America and may make for a southerly latitude.

In case you should make a trial first at Pilot bay or Perkin's inlet near Marble island, and should there find a west or north west tide, and the opening continue westerly, the same instruction given as for passing Wager strait, will be equally proper to follow in that opening, since both must coincide in 62 degrees, for wherever, upon trying the tide, you are convinced it flows from the westward, and you find it earlier, you may depend on having an open and large passage, as the ocean cannot be far distant, to raise such great tides on the north west of the bay.

Black whales seen in August and September directing their course south-westerly, would be a farther demonstration of a navigable passage to the western ocean, to which they are directing their course.

ART. VI.—*Tribute to departed Genius. Notice of the late right honourable R. B. Sheridan.*

A DISTINGUISHED advocate of freedom, celebrated through life for generosity of sentiment, an ardent attachment to principles of general liberty, and unshaken constancy in the maintenance of political right, could not fail to be estimated in this country according to the real value of his exalted character. The fame of Sheridan has long been familiar to every intelligent reader of history or politics. Sunk from our gaze in an obscure and ambiguous shade, his closing scene excited the sympathy and interest of all who admired his talents and regretted their loss. The praises of Byron* have called forth our regrets anew, and embodied our feelings in his verse.

Sheridan, a privy counsellor to the king, and treasurer of the navy, rose from slender beginnings to the highest offices of the state. He was indebted for his success altogether to the brilliancy of his genius, the extent of his learning, and the acuteness of his judgment. His father was a lecturer on elocution and rhetoric, and published the pronouncing dictionary that bears his name. Of Irish extraction, he possessed the characteristic felicity of idea and fluency of expression that distinguish the eloquent sons of Erin. The subject of our notice inherited these qualities in an eminent degree, and gave early promise of future excellence. He was educated at Harrow, and afterwards at the university of Oxford. The countenance of Garrick, Johnson, Burke, and other literary

* See Monody in the present number.

characters of the highest distinction, contributed to introduce him into public life, and, when quite a young man, he was chosen to fill a seat in parliament.

The tenor of his political career is too generally known to need an elaborate description. Few men possessing such a liberality of political opinion, and so strenuous in the support of the people's rights, have attained such honours, and been called to fill such responsible offices in the government.

He was undoubtedly an orator of the first class, as a dramatist he was equally celebrated, and, with somewhat more industry and closer attention to the great models, might have adorned the highest walks of poetry, but he was unfortunately indolent, and given to a reliance on his own unaided powers, so that, from the influence of convivial excess, joined to irregular habits of application, unequal efforts cancelled the due returns of his exalted genius. He was, emphatically, no man's enemy but his own.

His speech on the impeachment of Warren Hastings, when he brought forward the principal charge supported for four hours and a half, was perhaps the sublimest effort of modern eloquence, of which we have any account. In a luminous range through all the principles of his art, he combined the polished elegance of Cicero, with the hold and impetuous fire of the Athenian orator. Then indeed,

Conviction flash'd upon the wav'ring mind,
Which, forc'd to feel the mighty art combin'd,
As through the compass of his words it ran,
Was lost in wonder at the powers of Man!

Many of his speeches in parliament have been candidly admitted by all parties to exhibit every oratorical effect the human mind is capable of suggesting—brilliant wit, depth, solidity and logical acumen. He possessed in a most extraordinary manner, the happy power of giving interest to the tritest subjects.

Though foremost in the ranks of opposition to the ministry, in which he was supported by his royal patron,* then warm in the assertion of liberal principles, Mr. Sheridan was conspicuous for his patriotism, his ingenuous support of sound political doctrine, and a constancy in the worst of times.

When the mutiny of the seamen at the Nore threatened the exposure of the empire to the ravages of an invading enemy, Sheridan, throughout this critical and distressing period, displayed a noble magnanimity of mind—a spirit so superior to that of party, as to command the admiration of his country, and the esteem of those who differed from him radically on general politics.

In the debate on this affair he came forward boldly and energetically to express his disapprobation of the conduct that had been pursued by the insurgents, and which he truly described as unfair and inconsistent with the brave, generous, and open character of British seamen. "If men were oppressed," he said, "they ought to be relieved by their country; but, however just their complaints might be, they ought to complain in a regular way.

* The prince of Wales.

Should there be men among them, as he believed there were, who advised the sailors to place their country in such peril as it stood in at that moment, for the mere purpose of carrying their objects, such men he hesitated not in pronouncing to be the worst of traitors. He suspected that there were persons of this description; and the evil was of the most alarming kind, when the foe were actually preparing to attack us in the most formidable manner. He thought that listening to the suggestions of such enemies to their country would never have been the fault of British seamen."

This open and candid declaration of his sentiments was extremely well calculated to produce a good effect upon the public at large, and, which was of still more importance, upon the minds of the unhappy men, who were then the dupes of intriguing characters. That it excited attention among the sailors, appeared from a notice of this speech in a printed appeal to the nation, issued at Portsmouth by the ringleaders, which, as Mr. Sheridan observed, was worded more in the language of a circulating library than of the forecastle.

The conduct of Sheridan on this occasion, will appear more truly disinterested and patriotic, when it is recollected, that he was universally known in the fleet and on shore, as the seaman's friend.

"I have ever been their friend," said he, in the house, "but never more so than at this period, in warning them against those artifices which have been practised to seduce them. When people tell them that the navy can be managed without subordination, they may as well tell them a ship can be managed without a rudder: they had better, indeed, pull down the shrouds and the masts, and lay them on the deck, than listen to such misrepresentation."

On a subsequent day, when the royal message was taken into consideration, recommending the adoption of some means for the prevention and punishment of all attempts to excite sedition and mutiny in the navy, though Mr. Sheridan expressed his doubts respecting the policy of multiplying penal statutes, he very patriotically declined breaking the unanimity of the house on that occasion, and made some observations which did equal honour to his judgment and his candour. "The fatal perseverance in the mutiny," he said, "had placed the country in a perilous situation; and no person could feel more indignation against the foul incendiaries who had caused it than himself. He was, at first, induced to think that the mutineers had acted under the impulse of momentary delusion and mistake; but their subsequent and continued conduct convinced him that something more than delusion had operated on their minds, and that a rooted spirit of disobedience had taken place of those manly and loyal sentiments with which they had been on former occasions constantly animated. If there was, indeed, a rot in the wooden walls of Old England, our decay could not be very far distant. The question, as it evidently appeared in his view, was not about this or that concession, but

whether the country should be laid prostrate at the feet of France. It was, in fact, a matter of no moment whether it was laid prostrate at the feet of monarchical or republican France; for still the event would be equally fatal, and equally destructive. 'The national commerce would necessarily prove the great object of the enemy's vengeance; and those mistaken men who might be instrumental in producing so dreadful a crisis, would suffer most essentially in their dearest interests.'

On this occasion, he received many compliments, both in and out of parliament.

The inhabitants of London, and of the country many miles round, were thrown into great alarm by a tremendous conflagration which broke out suddenly in Drury Lane theatre, of which Mr. Sheridan was principal proprietor, about eleven o'clock at night, on the twenty-fourth of February, 1809. In a few minutes the whole building exhibited a mass of fire; and within the space of an hour the devouring element had reduced this splendid edifice to a heap of ruins.

Mr. Sheridan was then in the house of commons, where some of the members immediately, out of respect to him, proposed an adjournment; but though he was evidently much affected, he said, in a low tone of voice, that he did not think the misfortune, however heavy it might be to himself, was of so much consequence that the proceedings of the legislature should be thereby suspended. Soon afterwards he left the house; and finding on his arrival at the spot all exertions useless, he was prevailed upon to retire to the Piazza Coffee House, where every attention was shown him by several personages of the first distinction. His conduct on this occasion was cool and collected, and he displayed great fortitude in his remarks upon the event, observing that the misfortune was by no means an uncommon one, and might be remedied; but that he felt most from a consciousness that it was not in his power to save numbers from the inconveniences they must suffer by the want of employment, and who were in consequence threatened with inevitable ruin. His only consolation, he said, was in witnessing the attachment of his friends; and in the reflection that, as far as he had been able to ascertain, no lives were lost.

The total loss was estimated at three hundred thousand pounds, of which only thirty-five thousand pounds were insured; and that sum was instantly attached by the duke of Bedford as the ground landlord. It was said that Mr. Sheridan, in addition to his public damage, lost two piano-fortes, which had belonged to his first wife; a very valuable clock that had been the property of Mr. Garrick, and which was valued at seven hundred pounds; an organ that had once been Handel's, worth eight hundred pounds; and the whole of the elegant furniture, which, on the change of the ministry, was conveyed to the theatre from his residence in Somerset House.

On the affairs of Spain, he showed himself again the patriot, when others, usually the most vehement of the opposition, were

found to declaim against the expenditure of men and money in the peninsular war, then of doubtful issue. His good sense and liberality prevailed over the trammels and prejudices of party, and he seized an early opportunity of hailing the light that had shone forth in the south of Europe, as an encouraging appearance, of which due advantage should instantly be taken.

The speech of Mr. Sheridan was extremely animated, it exhibited a just, straight-forward, and enlarged field of policy. "Let Spain see," said he, "that we are not inclined to stint the services we had it in our power to render her; that we were not actuated by the desire of any petty advantage to ourselves; but that our exertions were to be solely directed to the attainment of the grand and general object, the emancipation of the world. But let not our assistance be given in dribblets; let it not be romantically and foolishly bestowed; let it be seen that the enthusiasm of the people had been fairly awakened; for without that our efforts could avail nothing. But if the flame were once fairly caught, our success was certain. France would then find that she had been hitherto contending only against principalities, powers, and authorities; but that she had now to contend against a people." Mr. Sheridan concluded by observing, energetically, "that the crisis was the most important that could be conceived, and that the stand made in the Asturias was the most glorious. He hoped that the progress of it would be closely watched, and that not a single opportunity would be lost of adding vigour and energy to the spirit which existed there. The symptoms could not be long in showing themselves; their progress must be rapid; probably, the very next despatch might be sufficient on which to form a decisive opinion; but if the flame did not burn like wildfire, it was all over. He hoped ministers would act as circumstances required; and if so, they should receive his cordial support."

The orator observed, that though it was not in mortals to command success, resistance was nevertheless indispensably necessary, even with the hazard of defeat: he then concluded in these animating words, which were his last in the house of commons. "But, if we fall, and if after our ruin, there shall possibly arise an impartial historian, his language will be, 'Britain fell, and with her fell all the best securities for the charities of human life, the power, the honour, the fame, the glory, and the liberties not only of herself, but of the whole civilized world.'"

Thus set this political luminary in the sphere which he had for so many years enlivened by the brilliancy of his wit, and often delighted by the power of his eloquence. Parliament was shortly after dissolved, and Mr. Sheridan again tried his strength at Stafford, where, however, notwithstanding the encouragement which he had experienced in the spring, he failed of success; nor had he influence enough to command a seat for any other place.

Under these depressing circumstances, did this extraordinary man retire from public life. The world to him was now in a man-

ner become a desert, in which there was little to cheer him amidst the gloom of neglect and the blast of penury; where he was continually tormented by the importunities of clamorous creditors, and pursued with unrelaxing severity by the harpies of the law.

Harassed by continual vexations, at a period when nature stands in need of repose and indulgence, it was not much to be wondered, that a man so long accustomed to convivial pleasures, should seek relief from the pressure of increasing embarrassments in the intoxicating means of forgetfulness. Unhappily, the early habits of Mr. Sheridan had been of a description that unfitted him to endure misfortune with that firmness, which, if it does not remove trouble, takes away its sting. When, therefore, the trying season came, it found him unprepared to resist the violence of the storm, and unable to direct his steps by any plan that could secure him from future calamity. In such a bewildered state, he increased his difficulties by the efforts which he made to elude them, and accelerated his dissolution, in endeavouring to drown the sense of his misery. Such is the fate of unhappy, eccentric genius, when unbridled by the restraints of prudence! as the winter of age approaches, we experience the mutability of political connexions, when reliance is placed on them alone, and the folly of neglecting those resources which can alone support the mind in every exigency, and minister to its comforts in the dreariness of solitude. Home, though the abode of domestic virtue and affection, was no longer safe to a person so well known and so much sought after by numerous applicants to avoid whose troublesome exigencies, and to gain a respite from anxiety, he passed much of his time abroad. Intemperance attended this course of life, and the effect of it upon his constitution, which had been naturally a very robust one, soon appeared in his countenance and manners, he was now sinking rapidly into the lowest state of human declension! at length his digestive powers were completely impaired, his memory was affected, and the symptoms of organic disease manifested themselves in a swelling of the extremities which soon left nothing for hope.

The complication of disorders multiplied rapidly, and he was confined to his room, where, to aggravate the wretchedness of his situation, and the distress of his family, an officer forced his way and arrested him in his bed. After remaining a few days in the house, this callous being signified his intention of removing the dying prisoner to a spunging-house, which resolution he was only prevented from carrying into execution by the interposition of Dr. Bain, the physician, who said that his patient was in such an extremely weak and exhausted state, that to move him at all, even in his own house, would most probably be fatal; but that if he were to be taken away in a violent manner, the agitation would most certainly be attended with immediate death, in which case he should feel it to be his duty to prosecute the officer for murder. This declaration had the proper effect, and the unfortunate victim was suffered to remain in the bosom of his afflicted family,

from whom he received every kind attention and all the comfort that could be administered.

It is too generally believed to admit of much doubt that the patriot was destitute of even the common necessities suited to his melancholy situation, and the unfeeling apathy of persons of high distinction in slighting an old favourite in distress, admits of no excuse. The plea of a want of means, if urged, ought to be exposed.*

As far as sympathetic solicitude could administer relief or comfort, Mr. Sheridan received every consolation from the kind attention of a numerous acquaintance and an affectionate family. But there is abundant reason to hope that his last moments were cheered by the more abundant consolation that alone springs from faith and repentance. Some days before his death, the bishop of London, who is a near relation of Mrs. Sheridan, desired Dr. Bain to ask if it would be agreeable to his patient to have prayers offered up by his bed side. When the commission was imparted to the sick, he assented with such an expression of fervent desire, that the bishop was instantly sent for, who lost no time in attending to the solemn call, and, accompanied by the physician, read several offices of devotion suited to the awful occasion. In these prayers, Mr. Sheridan appeared to join with humility and aspiration, clasping his hands, bending his head, and lifting up his eyes, significant of that penitential frame of mind which becomes every human spirit in its passage out of time into eternity. After this he seemed to possess much internal tranquillity until life ebbed gradually away, and he departed, without any apparent struggle or agony, in the arms of his affectionate consort, on Sunday, at noon, July the seventh, 1816, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

His remains were interred in Westminster Abbey between those of his friend and patron, the immortal Garrick, and Cumberland a dramatic writer of rival fame.

A plain flat stone records the spot where his body lies, with this simple inscription:

RICHARD BRINSLEY SHERIDAN,

Born 1751,

Died 7th July, 1816.

This marble is the tribute of an attached friend,

Peter Moore.

* The income of the Prince Regent is not precisely known. He has latterly been induced, in order to appease the clamours of the people, to relinquish a fifth part of his allowance from parliament, estimated about 50,000*l.* sterling; but, by the extent of his sales from the king's lands, and an unbounded revenue arising out of fines for the renewal of leases of his majesty's farms, his aggregate receipts are greatly swollen. The protracted indisposition of the monarch favours this state of things. Added to which, farther sources of supply, by borrowing on every possible ground of credit, and incurring debt for goods furnished, on the faith of ultimately ascending the throne, with an increase of allowances, extend the means of princely munificence.

But, it is a just remark that, the more luxurious the individual, the less charitable, frequently, is his heart.

A distinguished votary of the muses could not witness the setting of such a star, without paying some tribute to its lost splendor. And, to the sympathy of political sentiment, lord Byron felt, in addition, the endearing warmth of private friendship for the deceased.

ART. VI.—*Observations on Animal Magnetism.*

(From the Edinburgh Monthly Magazine.)

MR. EDITOR—There is now before me the First Part of the first volume of a work, entitled, *Archives of Animal Magnetism*,* published in the commencement of the present year, in the German language, at Altenburg and Leipsic. This work is to be continued periodically; and the conduct of it has been undertaken by three medical professors in the respectable universities of Tübingen, Jena, and Halle, viz. Drs. Eschenmayer, Kieser, and Nasse. No other proof than this is necessary, that a system which sound philosophy had, more than thirty years ago, pronounced to be a delusion, has again been revived in Germany; and has obtained credit, not merely with the vulgar, but with the more intelligent classes of society; and has even gained the belief of some, who, from their having been elevated to the situation of teachers in the highest seminaries of learning, may be presumed to possess a certain reputation among men of science.

It was my intention, in the present communication, to have presented your readers with such extracts from this journal as might enable them to judge for themselves of the nature and spirit of those doctrines, which are said to have excited so much interest abroad, and to hold out the prospect, in their ultimate improvement, of so much mental, as well as corporeal, good to man. On farther reflection, however, I have thought it better to defer this task till another opportunity, and to occupy the present paper with a few remarks relative to the history of this singular species of magnetic agency, such as may not be unaccessible to those who have little leisure or inclination for research, in subjects so remote from the common path of useful study.

The great teacher and practical administrator of animal magnetism in modern times, was a German physician named Mesmer. This individual first distinguished himself by a dissertation on the *Influence of the Stars on the Human Body*, which he printed at Vienna, in 1766, and publicly defended as a thesis in that university. But Father Hehl, a German philosopher, having, in 1774, strongly recommended the use of the *loadstone* in the art of healing, Mesmer immediately became a convert to his doctrines, and actually carried them into practice with success. In the midst, however, of his attention to the utility of the loadstone, he was led to the adoption of a new set of principles, which he conceived to be much more general and important in their application. He accordingly laid aside the use of the loadstone, and entered on the cure of disease on this more improved system. This apostacy

* Archiv für Thierischen Magnetismus. 8vo. 1817.

involved him in a quarrel with Father Hehl, and with the celebrated Ingenhouz, by whom he had formerly been patronised; and as their credit in Vienna was extremely high, and their exertions against him indefatigable, his system almost immediately sunk into general disrepute. To parry their opposition, he appealed in 1776, to the Academy of Sciences at Berlin. Here, however, his principles were rejected “as destitute of foundation, and unworthy of the smallest attention.” Undismayed by these important miscarriages, he made a progress through several towns of Germany, still practising magnetism, and publishing, from time to time, accounts of the cures he accomplished, which were as regularly followed by a denial on the part of his opponents. He returned to Vienna a second time, and made another attempt to obtain a favourable reception for his doctrines, but with no better success than formerly; so that, wholly disconcerted by these uninterrupted defeats in his native country, he left Germany, and arrived in Paris in the beginning of the year 1778. Here his prospects soon began to brighten. Having retired to Creteil with a few patients (one of them a paralytic woman,) he restored them to perfect health in a few months; and in consequence of this success, the numbers of those who applied to him for relief increased rapidly, and his cures were of the most astonishing nature. A numerous company was daily assembled at his house in Paris, where the magnetism was publicly administered; and M. Deslon, one of his pupils, is said to have cleared, during this tide of success, no less a sum than 100,000*l*. In 1779, he published a *Memoir on Animal Magnetism*, and promised a complete system upon the subject, which should make as great a revolution in philosophy as it had already done in medicine. Struck, as it is said, with the clearness and accuracy of his reasonings, the magnificence of his pretensions, and the extraordinary and unquestionable cures he performed, some of the greatest physicians and most enlightened philosophers of France became his converts. He was patronised by people of the first rank; his system became an affair of *bon ton*; and animal magnetism was warmly espoused by the fashionable world.

Nevertheless, the new doctrine was not without its opponents. Some of the ablest pens in France were employed in refutation of it; and in particular Thouret Regont, physician of the Faculty of Paris, and member of the Royal Society of Medicine, greatly distinguished himself by a work which he published, entitled, *Inquiries and Doubts respecting the Animal Magnetism*.

Mesmer, in his *Memoir* already mentioned, described the agent which he professed to have discovered, and to which he gave the appellation of *Animal Magnetism*, in the following manner:—“It is a fluid universally diffused; the vehicle of a mutual influence between the celestial bodies, the earth, and the bodies of animated beings; it is so continued as to admit of no vacuum; its subtlety does not admit of illustration; it is capable of receiving, propagating, and communicating, all the impressions that are incident to mo-

tion; it is susceptible of flux and reflux. The animal body is subject to the effects of this agent; and these effects are immediately produced by the agent insinuating itself into the substance of the nerves. We particularly discover, in the human body, qualities analagous to those of the loadstone; we distinguish in it, poles different and opposite. The action and the virtue of the animal magnetism are capable of being communicated from one body to another, animated or inanimate; they exert themselves to considerable distances, and without the least assistance from any intermediate bodies; this action is increased and reflected by mirrors; it is communicated, propagated, and augmented by sound; and the virtue itself is capable of being accumulated, concentrated, and transferred. Though the fluid be universal, all animal bodies are not equally susceptible of it; there even are some, though very few, of so opposite a nature, as by their mere presence to supersede its effects upon any other contiguous bodies. The animal magnetism is capable of curing, immediately, diseases of the nerves, and mediately, other distempers. It improves the action of medicines; it forwards and directs the salutary crises, so as to subject them totally to the government of the judgment; by means of it the physician becomes acquainted with the state of health of each individual, and decides with certainty upon the causes, the nature, and the progress of the most complicated distempers; it prevents their increase, and effects their extirpation, without at any time exposing the patient, whatever be his sex, age, or constitution, to alarming consequences. In the influence of the magnetism, nature holds out to us a sovereign instrument for securing the health and lengthening the existence of mankind."

The apparatus necessary for the administration of the magnetism, and the method in which it was employed, were the following. In the centre of a large apartment was a circular box made of oak, and about a foot or a foot and a half deep, which was called the bucket. The lid of this box was pierced with a number of holes, in which were inserted branches of iron, elbowed and moveable. The patients were arranged in ranks about this bucket, and each had his branch of iron, which, by means of the elbow, might be applied immediately to the part affected. A cord passed round their bodies, connected the one with the other. Sometimes a second means of communication was introduced, by the insertion of the thumb of each patient between the fore finger and the thumb of the patient next him. The thumb thus inserted was pressed by the person holding it. The impression received by the left hand of the patient was communicated through his right, and thus passed through the whole circle. A piano forte was placed in one corner of the apartment, and different airs were played, with various degrees of rapidity. Vocal music was sometimes added to the instrumental. The persons who superintended the process had each of them an iron rod in his hand, from ten to twelve inches in length. This rod was a conductor of the magnetism, and had the power of concentrating it at its point, and of

rendering its emanations more considerable. Sound was also a conductor of magnetism; and in order to communicate the fluid to the piano forte, nothing more was necessary than to approach to it the iron rod. The person who played upon the instrument, furnished also a portion of the fluid; and the magnetism was transmitted by the sounds to the surrounding patients. The cord which was passed round the bodies of the patients was destined, as well as the union of their fingers, to augment the effects by communication. The interior part of the bucket was so constructed as to concentrate the magnetism; and was a grand reservoir, from which the fluid was diffused through the branches of iron that were inserted in its lid. The patients then, arranged in considerable number, and in successive ranks, round the bucket, derived the magnetic virtue at once from all these conveyances:—from the branches of iron, which transmitted to them that of the bucket;—from the cord which was passed round their bodies, and the union of their fingers, which communicated to them that of their neighbours;—and from the sound of the piano forte or a musical voice, which communicated through the air. The patients were besides magnetised directly, by means of a finger or a bar of iron, guided before the face, above or behind the head, and over the surface of the parts affected, the distinction of the poles still observed. They were also acted upon by a look, and by having their attention excited. But especially they were magnetised by the application of the hands, and by the pressure of the fingers upon the hypochonders and the regions of the lower belly; an application frequently continued for a long time, sometimes for several hours.

In this situation the patients offered a spectacle extremely varied, in proportion to their different habits of body. Some of them were calm, tranquil, and unconscious to any sensation; others coughed, spat, were affected with a slight degree of pain, a partial or an universal burning and perspiration; a third class were agitated and tormented with convulsions. These convulsions were rendered extraordinary by their frequency, their violence, and their duration. As soon as one person was convulsed, others presently were affected by that symptom. Accesses of this kind sometimes lasted upwards of three hours; they were accompanied with expectorations of a thick and viscous water, brought away by the violence of the efforts. Sometimes these expectorations were accompanied with small quantities of blood; and there was among others a lad who frequently brought up blood in considerable abundance. These convulsions were characterised by precipitate and involuntary motions of all the limbs, or of the whole body; by a contraction of the throat; by sudden affections of the hypochonders and the epigastrium; by a distraction and wildness in the eyes; by shrieks, tears, hiccups, and immoderate laughter. They were either preceded or followed by a state of languor and reverie, by a species of dejection, and even drowsiness. The least unforeseen noise occasioned starting; and it was ob-

served, that the changing the key and the time in the airs played upon the piano forte, had an effect upon the patients; so that a quicker motion agitated them more, and renewed the vivacity of their convulsions. Nothing could be more astonishing than the sight of these spasms. One that had not seen them could have no idea of them; and in beholding the whole scene, the profound repose of one class of patients was not less striking than the violence with which another class was agitated.

The first part of the work to which I have alluded, by Thouret, had for its object to show, that the theory of Mesmer, instead of being a novelty in science, was an ancient system, which had been abandoned by the learned a century before. He demonstrated, in the most satisfactory manner, by precise references to the writings of Paracelsus, Van Helmont, Godenius, Bargravius, Libavius, Wirdig, Maxwel, Sir Kenelm Digby, Santanelli, Tentzel, Kircher, and Borel, that all the propositions published and avowed by Mesmer, were positively laid down by one or other of these authors. In the second part, Thouret proves, by observations and reasoning, remarkable for their acuteness and good sense, that all the effects ascribed by Mesmer to the operation of a new species of magnetism, were to be attributed solely to the influence of the imagination on the body; that they admitted of the same explanation as the cures of the two famous empirics, Great-rakes and Gassner; and that to pretend to the discovery of a curative means, which should extend to every species of disease, or, in other words, to a universal medicine, was an illusion unworthy of an enlightened age.

This work of Thouret's received, from a committee of the Royal Society of Medicine appointed to examine it, that praise to which it was so justly entitled, from the talent and the erudition it displayed; and it cannot be doubted, that its influence would alone have been sufficient to have arrested the progress of the doctrine it exposed, even if animal magnetism had not been, from its very nature, destined ultimately to share the fate of every popular delusion. Fortunately however for science, Mesmer's operations were deemed worthy of the attention of government; and on the 12th of March, 1784, a committee, consisting partly of physicians, and partly of members of the royal academy of sciences, was appointed by the king to examine thoroughly the principles of the new magnetical system. At the head of this committee was the celebrated Dr. Franklin; and the individuals united with him in the inquiry were, Majault, Le Roy, Sallin, Bailly, D'Arcet, De Bory, Guillotin, and Lavoisier. These philosophers immediately entered on the discharge of the duty which had been intrusted to them, with all the judgment and assiduity which it was natural to expect from men so eminently qualified for the task. Mesmer refused to have any communication with this committee; but M. Deslon, the most considerable of his pupils, consented to disclose to them the whole principles and practice of his master, and to assist them in all their investigations.

Accordingly, the commissioners, after having made themselves acquainted with the theory of animal magnetism, as it was professed by Mesmer, witnessed each of them repeatedly, its effects in public, when administered by Deslon; they submitted, in private, to be magnetised themselves; and they magnetised others in a variety of circumstances. The final results of their inquiry were communicated to the king, on the 11th of August, in a report which was drawn up by Dr. Franklin, and which will be read with admiration, as long as the history of the human mind affords interest to the moral philosopher or the physiologist. The animal magnetic fluid was pronounced to have no existence; and compression, imagination, and imitation, were shown to be the true causes of the effects attributed to it. "The curious and interesting inquiries of M. Thouret," say the commissioners, "have convinced the public, that the theory, the operations, and the effects of the animal magnetism proposed in the last age, were nearly the same with those revived in the present. The magnetism, then, is no more than an old falsehood. The theory, indeed, is now presented (as was necessary in a more enlightened age) with a greater degree of pomp; but it is not, on this account, the less erroneous."

This interesting report was translated into English, with an historical introduction, in 1785; and it is from this translation, which is respectably executed, that the preceding detail has been almost verbatim extracted. It is very important, however, to mention, that in addition to this memoir, which was obviously meant for the public eye, the commissioners deemed it their duty to communicate a private report to the king; in which, with a laudable solicitude for the morals of the sex, they disclosed certain circumstances, accompanying the administration of the magnetism, in the highest degree unfavourable to the purity of the female feeling and character, and which, by designing individuals, might be rendered subservient to purposes of the most criminal profligacy. This secret memoir has since been made public.

An exposure so complete, accomplished by men whose integrity and talents were acknowledged over the whole of Europe, speedily produced the effects that were to have been expected from it. In a few months, Mesmer and his animal magnetism were forgotten.

Since the overthrow of this system, the most remarkable popular delusion which has prevailed, is the belief in the influence of the *metallic tractors* of Perkins. With how much talent this deception was exposed by Dr. Haygarth and his scientific friends, is generally known. To this most able and intelligent physician, physiology is indebted for a series of experiments, displaying in a manner still more striking perhaps than had hitherto been done, the influence of powerful emotions on the corporeal frame. G.

Edinburgh, 1st Sept.

ART. VII.—*Of the Dissemination of Plants. From the French of M. C. F. Brisseau Mirbel.*

[From the *Journal of Science and the Arts.*]

By dissemination, we mean to express the spontaneous dispersion of the seeds of the vegetable creation; an event, which, while it brings to a close the yearly round of the vegetative functions of the individual, becomes the means of giving perpetuity to its race. When completed, the organs of the plant in which existence surpasses one year, tend visibly to a state of inactivity, and in that where this concludes with the year, to decay; being there in fact the first stage of dissolution. When we see the fruit separate from the parent-stem, its seams begin to open, the ligatures of the seed detach themselves from the placenta, we are not to place these appearances to the account of the energy of the vital principle; but on the contrary, to view them as the certain indications of its having ceased in that portion of the vegetable where they occur. Fruit undergoes the destiny of the leaf in autumn, and is quickly reduced within the control of those laws which govern all inorganic matter. If, of a succulent pulpy nature, the fluids ferment and turn sour, the texture collapses and the whole is dissolved by putrefaction; if of a ligneous dry consistence it follows precisely the course of the wood or the leaf in which vegetation has ceased.

In animals the affection they bear their offspring, the instinct they are endued with for its protection and succour, their strength, their courage, their address, are all so many means of insuring the perpetuity of their races; but to vegetables, sensation and the sources of spontaneous movement have been denied, and yet even here we see countless races appear before us on each revolving year, such as they appeared in the first days of their formation. Let us turn our attention to the causes of this wonderful stability in the races of vegetables.

The most efficient is without doubt the prodigious fecundity they are endowed with. Sir Kenelm Digby tells us, that the fathers of the congregation of La Doctrine Chrétienne at Paris, had in their possession about the year 1660, a single barley-plant with 45 straws producing in the aggregate 18,000 ears of barley. Ray counted 32,000 seeds in the heads of one plant of poppy, and 360,000 on one tobacco-plant. Dodart recounts of an elm, that it produced 529,000 seeds. Yet none of these vegetables are among those of the foremost ranks in the degrees of fecundity. The number of seeds borne by a plant of *Begonia*, or *Vanilla*, but above all by a fern, confounds calculation.

Although many kinds, like those of angelica, fraxinella, and coffee, quickly spoil, and require to be sown almost as soon as ripe; yet the far greater proportion preserve the germinating faculty for years and even for ages. We have ourselves recently witnessed the growth of the seeds of a kind of kidney-bean which had been taken from the herbarium of Tournefort. Home sowed with success barley that had been gathered 140 years. Wheat has been discovered in subterraneous hoards, which had been lost

and forgotton for time out of mind, in as perfect a state as the day it was reaped.

Insects, birds, and four-footed animals are the great destroyers of seeds; yet their abundance is such as prevails over the voracity of their consumers; while some are defended from all risk by the hardness of their coverings, or the thorns which arm them, or the acrid and corrosive juices with which they are impregnated.

Spontaneous dissemination favourable to the development of individual plants by preventing the too great accumulation of seed within a too narrow compass, is carried on in various ways. In the balsam, catchfly, fraxinella, sand-box-tree, &c. the valves of the seed-vessel open with a spring that projects the contents to a distance from the parent-plant. The gourd of the spirting cucumber, by a contraction which takes place at the moment of its fall, darts out the seed along with a corrosive fluid by a vent formed as it quits the stalk. The seed of the wood-sorrel is contained in an extensile arillus or separate pouch, which dilates as the seed-vessel grows, but at last the power of extension ceases in the pouch, when it bursts and shoots out the seeds by an elastic effort. Plants of a lower degree in the scale of organization, such as the mushrooms, have their peculiar means of disseminating the particles destined for their reproduction. For instance, some of the species of *Peziza* impart a vibratory motion to the cap or cover which bears their seed when that is ripe. Puff-balls, also of the mushroom-tribe, burst at the top like the crater of a volcano, and the seed is in such quantity and so fine that when it escapes it has the appearance of a volume of smoke. The capsules of ferns likewise open with a spring, an effect of their contraction in drying up when ripe. A like cause gives motion to the cilia or inner fringe which surrounds the urns or seed-vessels of mosses. But although such partial phenomena, may attract our curiosity, they act only a very subordinate part in the grand total of dissemination. There are other more general and powerful causes to be mentioned in this place.

Many seeds are as fine and volatile as the dust of the anther; the winds carry these away to scatter them on the plain, the mountain, the building, and in the very depth of the cavern. No place seems closed against the intrusion of the impalpable seeds of the various sorts of Moulds (*Mucres*.)

Heavier seeds and fruits are furnished with wings, which support them in the air, and serve to waft them through great distances. The seed-vessel of the elm is surrounded by a circular membranous wing; that of the ash is terminated by one that is oblong. The keys or seed-vessel of the maple has two large side-wings. The seeds of the fir, the cedar, and the larch are furnished with a wing of great fineness. The peduncle of the capsule of the lime-tree adheres to a kind of broad bracte which plays the part of wings.

The seeds of syngenesious plants are furnished with a feathery crown or aigrette, and look like small shuttle-cocks. The separ-

rate threads that compose this aigrette distending as they dry, serve as levers to lift the seed from the involucre that holds it, and when out, as a parachute to prevent its coming to the ground, and to buoy it in the air.

Linnæus suspects that the *ERIGERON canadense* came through the air from America to Europe, not at all an impossible thing. When once that syngenesious plant has found its way into any quarter, it is sure to disperse and sow itself round the whole neighbourhood.

The funiculus (a cord which attaches the seed to its receptacle) of the dogbane, swallowwort, periploca, &c. the calyx of several of the valerians and scabiouses form of themselves elegant aigrettes resembling those of the seed of the syngenesious plants.

Seeds are often carried by eddies of winds far from the spot on which they grew. Whirlwinds have been known to scatter over the southern coast of Spain those that had ripened on the northern coast of Africa.

Some fruits are closed hermetically and so constructed as to swim on the water. These are carried to every distance by torrents and rivers, as well as the sea itself. Cocoa-nuts, cashew nuts, and the pods of the *MIMOSA scandens* sometimes of the length of two yards, with many other fruits of the tropical regions, are cast upon the shores of Norway, in a state to vegetate, did the climate permit.

Regular currents transport the large double cocoa-nut of the Sechelles, to the coast of Malabar at the distance of 400 leagues from whence it was produced. Fruits brought by the sea have sometimes discovered to uncivilized nations the existence of those islands which lay to the windward of their country. By such tokens Columbus in the search of the American continent was apprised that he was not far distant from the land of which he had prognosticated the existence.

Linnæus remarks that animals co-operate with great effect in the dissemination of seed.

The squirrel and cross-bill, are both very fond of the seed of the fir; to open the scales of the cones they strike them against stones, and thus set free and disperse the seed.

Crows, rats, marmots, dormice convey away seeds to stock their hoards in out-of-the-way places. These form their winter-stores, but are often lost or forgotten, while their contents come up in the spring.

Birds swallow the berries, of which they digest only the pulp, but void the stones entire and ready to germinate. It is thus that the thrush and other birds deposit the seed of misletoe on the trees where it is found; and indeed destitute as this is of wings or aigrettes, it could not be disseminated in any other way, for it will not grow on the ground.

The Poke of Virginia (*PHYTOLACCA decandra*), which was introduced by the monks of Corbonnieux into the neighbourhood of Bordeaux, for the sake of colouring the wine, has been since dis-

seminated by the birds throughout the southern departments of France, and in the deepest valleys of the Pyrenees.

The Dutch, with the view of monopolizing the trade of nutmegs, extirpated the trees on those islands which they could not watch so narrowly as the rest; but in a short time these very islands were re-stocked with nutmeg-trees by the birds; as if nature refused to admit of such encroachment on her rights.

Granivorous quadrupeds disseminate the seed they do not digest. It is known to every one that horses infect the meadows with new weeds.

The fruit of the prickly-seeded scorpion-grass, of cleavers or goose-grass, of the wood-sanicle are all provided with small hooks by which they lay hold of the fleeces of the flock, and accompany its migrations.

There are particular plants, such as the pellitory-of-the-wall, the nettle, and the sorrell, that may be said to seek the society of man, and actually to haunt his footsteps. They spring up along the wall of the village, and even in the streets of the city, they follow the shepherd, and climb the loftiest mountain with him. When young I accompanied M. Ramond in his excursions in the Pyrenees, where that learned naturalist more than once pointed out to me these deserters from the plains below; they grew on the remains of ruined hovels, where they kept their station in defiance of the severity of the winters, and remained as memorials to attest the former presence of man and his flocks.

Distances, chains of mountains, rivers, the sea itself are but unavailing barriers to the migration of seed. Climate alone can set bounds to the dispersion of the vegetable races; that only draws the line which these cannot transgress. In process of time, it is probable that most of the plants which grow within the same parallel of latitude will be common to all the countries comprized in the entire zone of it; an event which would be one of the great blessings resulting from the industry and persevering intercourse of civilized nations. But no human power will ever force the vegetable of the tropics to endure the climate of the poles, nor *vice versâ*. Here nature is too strong for man.

Species cannot spontaneously spread themselves from one pole to the other, the intermediate differences of temperature preventing such progress; but we may assist in transporting them, as we have done successfully in various instances. We have already transplanted the eucalypti, the metrosidera, the mimosas, the casuarinæ and other plants of Terra Australis into our own soil; while the gardens of Botany-bay are stocked with the fruit-trees of Europe.

The dissemination of seed completes the round of vegetation. The shrub and the tree are bared of their foliage; the herb is dried up and returns to the earth from which it came. That earth appears to us as if stripped for ever of her gay attire, yet countless germs wait but the stated season to readorn her with verdure and bloom. Such is the prodigal fertility of nature, that a sur-

face of a thousand times the extent of that of our whole globe, would not suffice for the seed harvest of a single year, provided the whole was suffered to reappear; but the destruction of seed is endless, and only a small portion escapes to rise again. In no way in our view are the power of nature and the immutability of its laws more strikingly displayed, than in the successive resurrections of the types of by-gone generations.

Of the Death of Plants, from the French of the preceding Author.

PLANTS, like animals, unless destroyed by disease or casualties, are doomed to die of old age.

In many of the *mucres* (plants which constitute mouldiness) *byssi*, and mushrooms, the verge of life does not extend beyond a few days or even hours.

The herbaceous plants we call annuals die of old age considerably within the term of a year. In our climates their death takes place on the approach of winter. But we are not on that account to conclude that cold is the primary cause of the event; a milder climate would not have protracted their existence. Plants of this nature which grow under the line itself are scarcely longer lived than those which grow in the regions bordering on the poles. In both situations they perish when the propagation of the species has been secured by the ripening of the seed.

In the herbaceous plants we call biennials, only leaves make their appearance in the first year. These generally die away when winter comes; in the spring a new foliage, the forerunner of the flower-stem, is evolved. The blossom soon appears, this is followed by seed, after which the biennial dies in the same way as the annual.

In the herbaceous plants called perennials, the parts exposed to the action of the light and air perish every year after they have seeded; but the root survives in the ground, new stems are thrown up in the following spring, and blossom and seed is again produced.

In the generality of woody plants, death does not supervene until the process of fructification has been repeated for a greater or less number of years. There are trees however belonging to the monocotyledonous class, as the sago-tree (*sagus farinifera*), the umbrella-tree (*corypha umbraculifera*) with immense fan-formed leaves of 8 or 10 yards in length, which only bear fruit once, and then die; but on the other hand, in the dicotyledonous class there are enormous trees, whose existence seems to date from before the records of history, and which, in spite of their antiquity, are loaded in each returning year with blossom and seed.

If we were to view the perennial and the woody plants as simple individuals, as such we should be naturally induced to conclude, that unless destroyed by disease or casualties they were free from the liability to death from old age; but a due conside-

ration leads us to distinguish in every perennial and woody plant the new part which actually lives and grows, from the old which has ceased to grow and is dead.

I will state this in a broader way. Plants of this nature have two modes of propagating their races; one by seeds, the other by a continuous evolution of like parts.

In the first case, the seed presents us with an embryo-plant, a new and different individual, independent and unconnected with that from which it derived its existence; in the second case we are presented with a series of individuals, which issue from the surface the one of the other in an uninterrupted sequence, and in some instances continue permanently united. But whether individuals of this description are produced by seed or continuous evolution, it is certain that they escape, in neither case, the influence of time. While the succession of individuals or what we may call the race, produced in either of the ways, is on the other hand as clearly beyond the reach of age and will endure until destroyed by some extraneous cause.

We will endeavour to show how those general laws apply.

All the parts of the young herbaceous annual are susceptible of enlargement; the cells of the tubes, at first very small, are soon after extended in every way; in process of time their membranous walls, fortified by the absorption of nutritious juices, grow thicker, and lose by degrees their original pliancy. The membranes once hardened, excitement ceases to be produced, and the vital functions are at an end; nourishment is no longer drawn, growth is at a stand, and the plant unable to resist the ceaseless attacks of the external agents employed by nature for its destruction, decays in a short time.

Similar causes induce similar results in the stems of the herbaceous perennials; but there the root is regenerated by a succession of continuous evolutions.

By renewals of the same nature the life of shrubs and trees proceeds. In them the liber or inner bark represents the herbaceous plant, and has like that only a short period of vegetative existence. For when vegetation revives in the woody plant on the return of spring; it is because a new liber endowed with all the properties of a young herbaceous plant, has replaced under the cortex or rind the liber of the preceding year, which has hardened and become wood.

The yews of Surrey, which are supposed to have stood from the time of Julius Cæsar, and are now 2 yards in diameter; the cedars on Mount Lebanon, 9 yards in girth, from the measurement of the learned Labillardière; the fig tree of Malabar, according to Rumphius, usually from 16 to 17 yards round; the stupendous chestnuts on Mount Ætna, one of which, Howell tells us, measured 17 yards in circumference; the ceibas of the eastern coast of Africa, of such bulk and height that a single stick is capable of being transformed into a pirogua or sailing vessel of 18 or 20 yards from stem to stern and of 3 or 4 in the waist; the baobab of Seneg-

gal of 10 or 12 yards in girth, and, according to the computation of Adanson, 5 or 6000 years old; all of these, giants as they are, vegetate, as does the smallest bush, solely by the thin herbaceous layer of the liber annually produced at the inner surface of their bark. The concentric layers of preceding libers constitute the mass of the wood, a lifeless skeleton, serving solely to support the new formed parts, and to conduct to them the juices by which they are fed; nor is it even necessary for these functions that this should be in an entire state. Willows and chestnuts when quite hollow at the heart, still continue to grow with vigour; but in their soundest state, strip them of their bark, and they quickly perish.

Thus reflection teaches us that the long life of the greater part of trees, and the immortality which at first sight appears to have been imparted to others as well as to the whole of the herbaceous perennial plants, form in reality no exception to the general law which destines every organized individual to perish in determined course; since we see that the old parts of the roots of the herbaceous perennial continue constantly to die away under ground, and are succeeded by new ones, and that the concentric layers which constitute the wood or heart of the trunks of trees, are no other than the accumulated remains of by-gone generations, in which vegetation and life are entirely extinct.

This appears to us the true view of the nature of the life and death of such beings as are constantly regenerated by the successive evolutions of like continuous parts.

And we may observe that the liber which is formed on the stem of a tree of centuries old, if the tree has met with no accidental injury to affect its health, enjoys the vegetative power in as full force as the liber which is formed on that of the sapling, and that a sound well grown scion from the aged but healthy tree, affords as good a cutting for propagation as that taken from the young one, so that the race might be perpetuated by cuttings alone, without the assistance of seeds. From this we are entitled to conclude, that according to the course of nature, the progress of regeneration by continuous evolution would never be arrested, if the overgrown size of the branches and stem, the hardening of the wood, and the obstructions of the channels which permeate it, did not impede the circulation of the sap, and consequently its access to the liber.

In fine, what we call death by old age, in a tree, to speak correctly, is the extinction of that portion of a race which has been carried on by continuous evolution; the inevitable result of an incidental death in the liber occasioned by the privation of nourishment.

The life of trees has been commonly divided into three stages; infancy, maturity, and old age. In the first the tree increases in strength from one day to the other; in the second it maintains itself without sensible gain or loss; in the third it declines. These stages vary in every species according to soil, climate, aspect, and

the nature of the individual plant. The common oak usually lasts from 6 to 900 years, and the stages of its existence are of about 2 or 300 years each. It has been observed to live longer in a dry than in a wet soil. The same may be said of the chestnut.

Every species in order that it may attain its due growth, requires a certain temperature to be found within limits of a greater or less extent.

The common oak, the fir, the birch, &c. thrive most towards the north; the ash, the olive tree, &c. in the warmest parts of Europe; the baobab, the ceiba, and the palm, flourish and become robust nowhere but between the tropics.

According to Sir Humphry Davy, the respective quantities of carbon furnished by different woods afford a tolerably exact scale wherewith to measure their longevities. Those in which carbonic and earthy substances abound, are the most lasting; and those in which the largest proportion of gaseous elements is found, are the least so. This rule may hold good in regard to our indigenous trees; but I doubt whether the baobab, the ceiba, and many other tropical trees, the wood of which is of a loose and soft texture, will afford from masses of equal size, the same proportion of carbon as our oaks, chestnuts, or elms, although they grow to a much greater age.

Sir Humphry Davy is also of an opinion that trees of the same species grow to a more advanced period in the north than in the south, as cold guards against fermentation and dissolution of parts; but every tree lives the longest when it is in that climate which is the best adapted to its nature. Sir Humphry's opinion would be unquestionable if the vegetable species in view were organized so as to be adapted to grow in all the climates of the globe, and it was then found that their duration was constantly greater towards the poles than towards the line. I do not doubt that more oaks of a great age, and more firs also, are found in the north than in the south of Europe; but it is on the other hand beyond a doubt that the ashes of Calabria and Sicily are longer lived than those of Prussia and Great Britain. These are phenomena which depend upon the particular nature of species, and of this subject we know nothing.

In proportion as the tree increases in size the vessels of its ligneous layers become obstructed, and the sap circulates with less freedom; hence absorption and secretion decrease after youth, in proportion as the bulk of the tree is enlarged. The liber is less vigorous; the buds and roots become fewer and feebler; the branches wither; the stem decays at the head; water settles in the injured parts; the wood moulders away. Ere long, the new liber, the annual herbaceous part of woody vegetables, loses the power of completing its regeneration, new parts are no longer evolved, and the tree perishes.

The tree after death is overrun by *puccinia*, *mucres*, *sphæria*, and other cryptogamous plants; it attracts and imbibes moisture, no longer as formerly by the absorbing power of its organs, but by the hygrometrical property it derives from its porous conformation,

and the chymical action of the elements which compose it; the oxygen of the atmosphere consumes a part of its substance; some water is generated, carbonic acid gas is disengaged; and the rest is resolved into vegetable mould (*humus*), a fat brown powdery substance, eminently fertile, in which we find in different proportions the same elements as those of which vegetables are composed; and which have the faculty of decomposing air and combining with its origin.

It is thus the career of plants is terminated in the order of things. The earth they adorned in the period of vegetation, is fertilized by their remains; germs impregnated with new life have already been confided to its bosom, ready to supply the by-gone generations, and through the death of individuals an unfading youth is secured to the race.

ART. VII. *Thoughts on the Amelioration of the Condition of the Slave Population of the West-Indies, together with the ultimate abolition of slavery and the means of civilizing Africa; from an unpublished Manuscript, by J. A. Mossel, Esq. late of the University of Edinburgh.*

ESSAY I.

THE arrival of a general peace had, among a variety of benefits which are its usual concomitants, the good effect of awakening the attention of nations to the necessity of abolishing Christian slavery in those piratical states where it was found to exist. In this enlightened age, when the principles of general liberty are so widely diffused and appreciated, it was not to be tolerated that any power should assume to itself the right of detaining captives in a state of bondage, to labour solely for the individual interests of their oppressors. The long continuance of European warfare delayed the necessary work of retribution until the jarring views of conflicting parties should be harmonized, when, simultaneously as it were, the reproach of having for a time submitted to the indignity and injustice of christian slavery, was sought to be effaced by the several maritime powers. After due chastisement bestowed upon the perpetrators of so flagrant an enormity, the supreme head of the Barbary states was compelled to engage for himself, his heirs and successors for ever, to abolish that slavery in his dominions. But Africa, injured, desolated Africa, is unable to avenge the wrongs she sustains from European aggression. Debased by the policy of moral degradation too successfully exerted by crafty adversaries*—robbed by their intrigues of her unhappy victims she is impotent in exertion and ineffectual in complaint. To the tears and remonstrances of the unfriended African, country and friends are alike strangers; they are deaf to his

* This is evident from the constant intrigues among the petty princes and chiefs of tribes practised by the slave dealers, who thus succeed in promoting discord and contention between the natives whom they encourage to entrap and sell each other. Prisoners in war of both parties are frequently sold to the same dealer.

voice and inaccessible to her intreaties. Without the power of vindicating herself, Africa must look for relief to those friends to humanity who have associated themselves for the purpose of mitigating her sorrows, to "labour together for good" in comforting and civilizing a much injured people lost in the profoundest ignorance and barbarism.* To them the appeal most appropriately belongs, who, actuated by the true charity of the Gospel, have proclaimed aloud to the world the moral obligation on all mankind to suppress that odious and blood-stained practice permitted for a time to disgrace those who "call themselves christians."

A parity of reasoning to that which influenced civilized nations in reducing inadmissible pretensions to tyrannize over unoffending captives, appears to apply, with perfect analogy, to the case of the African slave trade, already denounced and abolished by the most enlightened powers. Forcibly to apply the labour of our fellow-creatures to our individual purposes without emolument or requital to the persons so labouring, is utterly irreconcilable with the primary dictates of humanity and natural justice—subversive of every moral principle, and calculated in its effect to loosen the attachment of man to man. The consequences of impairing or weakening that attachment, whether it spring from interested or from moral motives, or both, are more serious and extensive in their influence than persons accustomed to European politics alone are qualified to conceive. The slave population in some of the British West India islands is so considerable and preponderating over the number of whites, so abject in condition, and oppressed by wrongs, that it would not be matter of surprise if attempts at rebellion should be repeated, and tragical scenes of wide calamity and fixed root, as at Barbadoes, again occur. The sanguinary effects of that most deplorable event—the destruction of property and loss to individuals, are far exceeded as to their remote consequences, by the mischief resulting from the necessity of severe and numerous punishments, and no less probably by the secret workings of the deep though silent curses of every breast that mourns a comrade slain. How far the effect of these occurrences is likely to survive in the memory of the negro, and what turn of mind they may serve to produce, can best be conceived by those who understand his character by experience. May the day of vengeance be far distant, and the arm of irritated slavery, seeking to establish the sacred rights of liberty and independence, be stayed by the the adoption of a milder and a wiser policy!

To Britain, the possessor of a more ample share of colonies than has fallen to the lot of any other power, it is natural to look, after the decisive part she has taken in this great question, for the happy example of an improved policy, tending at once to remove the causes of discontent, and to bind the labourer to his employer. We are taught to believe that there is, on the part of the British

* We allude to the African Institution of London, founded in 1806, by the joint exertions of Wilberforce, Clarkson, Granville Sharp and other distinguished philanthropists.

cabinet, a disposition to place the colonies on the most favoured footing, and on behalf of that most useful and laborious class who constitute so considerable a proportion of the inhabitants, it is but equitable to claim some title to consideration and clemency. It is not too much to hope, indeed, that what Africa cannot of itself bring about, the government of England will voluntarily yield—that when it shall be seen, the preservation of the West India islands in their allegiance to the parent state depends entirely upon a more judicious line of conduct in the planters—that the civilization of Africa, together with a beneficial extended commerce with the interior of that vast continent is the happy result of such a combination of measures as seems to present itself with every feasibility—the British government will hesitate no longer to interpose, and, rendering to Africans natural justice, identify their interests with the cause of their employers and the cause of the government.

Influenced by a sincere desire to promote the welfare of mankind, to advance the interests of my country, and to efface that stigma on the national character, too long suffered to exist, I am induced to suggest the propriety as well as policy of legislating in favour of the slave population in the British West India islands. To establish the practicability of my plans, and to serve as some guide in the discussions to which a consideration of this weighty question must necessarily lead, I have been careful to collect all the information it was possible to obtain during a recent visit to the West Indies, and in the inferences drawn, my judgment, not borne away, as some may imagine, by a blind humanity, has been exercised in that sober induction which facts warrant and reasoning prescribes. Investigation, fairly and impartially conducted, will decide on the tenor of my propositions, which, it is believed, are secure in their tendency, and practicable in operation.

It is not confined to the student of moral philosophy to know, that where self-interest excites, industry will be proportioned to the ratio of the stimulus. Persons in the West Indies must frequently have observed the quantity of labor bestowed upon a soil to have been greatly accelerated by a promise to the slaves of money or of drink.* Much of the land about Demarara and Berbice was cleared with astonishing rapidity by these successful appeals to human nature, and it is not doubted that cultivation might be extended, to the great advantage of capitalists, in some very fertile parts of South America adjacent to those provinces, were the introduction of hired labourers encouraged, according to the principles proposed to be unfolded in the following treatise.—It is unquestionable that the efforts of the slaves are much relaxed when they reflect, that they labour without emolument, and sow what they are not permitted to reap. This relaxation has been frequent-

* The latter species of reward ought most decidedly to be discouraged. It is apt to engender numberless evils, and opposes, instead of advancing, that great moral principle which cannot be too carefully promoted, viz. the desire of man to better his condition.

ly ascribed to natural indolence, the heat of climate, and such slight predisposing causes, though rarely to the one most probable and important, because, this it is the policy of the planter to conceal, viz. the want of a sufficient inducement to exertion.

That "every man is worthy of his hire" is an axiom as equitable as it is natural. But, hitherto the devoted negro has been considered, most unjustly and indefensibly, an exception to this general rule. To hire, rather than purchase, would unquestionably have had the effect of propelling cultivation forward in a much greater degree than as estates are now administered, under the existing system. Few can afford to embark in the concern of an extensive plantation, when the price affixed to each slave in most instances exceeds 100*l.* sterling or 500 dollars per head, whereas by engaging labourers, who would, as hereafter shown, if fairly paid, always resort in considerable numbers to the West India islands, more estates might be cultivated, with scarcely any advance of capital, and the general prosperity of those islands would, of course, be materially advanced. It might be necessary in the first instance, to fix the price of labour,* which should be regulated according to local circumstances, on mature investigation; thus would the labourers, or, as they are termed in St. Domingo, cultivators, be enabled to procure for themselves a few trifling comforts, and it is scarcely necessary to remark how effectually the payment of wages in return for labour would connect the cultivator with his employer, by the strongest of all ties, self-interest.

After the expulsion of the French from St. Domingo, on the establishment of a regular government by the blacks, it was in contemplation to adopt this principle in fixing the price of labour. Not that it is to be received as a problem of any merit in political economy, to measure the rate of wages, permanently, by the will of the legislature. Attempts to interfere in such cases are usually productive of dissatisfaction, and do harm. Labour should at all times be left to find its own level and to answer the demand, except perhaps on the first occurrence of a great change in the order and constitution of society, when interests are unsettled, forms reversed, and clashing doubts in need of being composed. A bit per day† would probably have been considered ample by the planters under the ancient *Regime*, but to reconcile opposition it was determined to make trial of an appropriation of one-fourth part of the gross produce to the cultivator, a system that has been found by experience calculated to give general satisfaction, in the circumstances of that country, and is now embodied into a fixed law. On a certain day, after crop time, the aggregate produce is weighed and portioned off, the buyers who go round the country,

* In the state of Delaware, with which only I profess any acquaintance, blacks and coloured men, who mostly perform all agricultural labour, receive from six to eight dollars per month, beside their board. Carpenters and mechanics have been known to make from twelve to twenty dollars per month.

† A bit is an aliquot part of a Spanish Dollar. In St. Domingo eleven bits compose a dollar; in different islands the division and currency vary.

being ready to convert it into cash. The inconveniences attendant on an annual settlement are remedied by occasional advances on the part of the proprietors, so as to enable the cultivators on the estate to procure necessaries, while the accumulation in reserve is of course beneficial to the interests of the prudent. A strict police and the exertions of managers prevent instances of intoxication from being frequent—this evil, it might be thought, would be a consequence of wealth suddenly acquired, especially in the case of ignorant persons; but, as in military affairs, discipline is essential to the well being of an army, so is a strict police and punishment when deserved, essentially necessary in the administration of an estate, and no where is such police more efficient than in that island.

In the case of uncleared lands and new settlements, some useful hints may possibly be derived from the practice in St. Domingo, where the blacks must be supposed to understand full well the nature of the equivalent that is suited to the wants of their *quondam* fellow-slaves. A man of industry with some little credit, and without capital, might, in this view, feel himself competent to undertake the cultivation of an estate. In South America, in parts adjacent to French and Dutch Guyana, even on the banks of the rivers Corantain and Essequibo, under every protection, fertile districts in a state of nature might be cleared and planted at an expense comparatively trifling and free from those exorbitant demands which the settler would have to encounter in many of the islands. By agreeing with his labourers to assign to them one fourth part of the whole amount of produce, he would attract an ample number of hands necessary to enable him to prosecute his design, whereas to purchase a sufficient quantity of slaves might be wholly out his power.

It has been ascertained that the apportioning of task work, with suitable inducements, has been attended with the best effects in stimulating the energies of the negro; in such cases of course the remuneration is proportioned to the quantity of labour performed. The policy of this measure will be at once apparent when we consider the disposition of man to adapt his labour to the reward, regulating the former by the frequency of the latter.

One great bar to improvement in the West Indies is to be found in the existing practice of valuing estates according to the number of negroes attached to them; the consequence is few individuals unless some of desperate fortunes, will be found to embark in the purchase of an estate in most of the British West India possessions, because the first outlay exceeds in amount what any prudent man would think proper to hazard in such a speculation, attended with various risks. The position is not altered by the circumstance of that outlay being commuted for personal bonds, guarded by mortgage deeds of the estate and power, with warrant, of attorney. These are the refuges of the venturesome planter, not the voluntary covenants of the prudent. By separating the land from the negroes, it is probable many respectable persons might be induced to give

a higher price for the land alone than when coupled with the sale of those unfortunate beings, some of whom, skilled as artisans or mechanics, have, since the abolition of the traffic by sea, been sold for upwards of eight hundred dollars each. The more general and politic introduction of whites, particularly in house-work, and many offices less exposed than the labour of the field, might be one, amongst other desirable attributes of a system which, when fully developed, appears to promise a happy termination to the angry discussions that have so long divided mankind on the slave question. From the colonial legislatures, however, it is hopeless to expect any regulations of internal economy such as those alluded to. Composed of the leading planters,* their interests, they maintain, are diametrically opposed to concessions of whatever nature, until they shall be roused to a sense of their danger and convinced of their errors. To the mother country we must look for the origin and accomplishment of such measures as may be ascertained to benefit a most valuable body, by whom all cultivation is performed, and nearly all trades and callings exercised—attended with as light a sacrifice as possible on the part of those who hitherto have monopolized all consideration and been permitted exclusively to reap the benefits of the prevailing system.

The substitute proposed in order to supply the place of slaves in new settlements, and to replenish the lands required in the old, is to be found in the disposition of the *Kroomen*, (a hardy race of people in Africa who come down from the interior to work at Sierra Leone) voluntarily to emigrate in search of employment and in the hope of gain. The reports of the London African institution, founded on the information of gentlemen long resident on the western coast of Africa, represent these people as a most laborious and indefatigable class of persons, performing all the severer toils about the different forts and settlements, and contented with a very moderate reward. They have been known frequently to row fifteen miles out to sea and return perfectly satisfied if they earn a leaf of tobacco by rendering any service to vessels on the coast. No reasonable doubt can exist that, were a number of these *Kroomen* hired in the first instance by contract, for five or seven years, at a stipulated rate, the West India islands would soon be resorted to, under due restrictions, by their countrymen in numbers adequate to the demand; nor is it less likely that they would be inclined to quit their native shores than the Malays, the Hindoos and the Chinese, who, under the denomination of *Lascars*, freely engage themselves to the commanders of East India shipping to navigate vessels on an European voyage. We have experience of the fact of these *Kroomen* removing 800 and 1000 miles from the interior down to the coast in search of hire and its reward. Their fidelity and competence to hard labour are abundantly testified. Experiment only is necessary to ascertain the practicability of inducing them freely and of their own accord to enter

* Governor Elliot's letter

into voluntary engagements to serve for a limited period in the West Indies. As some proof of this project being far from visionary, may be adduced also the fact of no less than eight British West India regiments, consisting wholly of black troops, having been raised and embodied in Africa to serve in the West India islands. During a period coeval with the breaking out of the war between England and France up to the present day, these regiments, so remarkable for their good conduct on all occasions, have been recruited from Africa under every circumstance of opposition from the slave dealers on the one hand, and watchful scrutiny of the abolitionists of the slave trade on the other.

It might be curious to inquire with what feelings the slave on a plantation, who cannot be said to be a human being without thought, regards the condition of the more fortunate negro soldier; in so doing we cannot omit to arrive at some degree of approximation between the relative situation and claims of a body of slaves contrasted with those of a battalion of free men. The soldier is free, inasmuch as a price has not been set upon his head, but restraints—sometimes severity, fatigue, privations—he is obliged patiently to endure. Implicit obedience to the will of a superior officer is his first duty—neglect of it is attended with punishment. So far the soldier is a slave: but then he earns the wages of his calling, and honour is supposed to constitute a portion of his reward.* Not so with the slave, he knows no reward, his labour goes unrequited—his body the property of a purchaser, but with a soul equally acceptable to God. How long shall such palpable injustice be permitted to endure? What exception to the general title to remuneration enjoyed by each labouring individual in civilized society shall be pleaded in bar of extension to the unoffending African? At a time when the abolition of the trade in slaves is professed to be enforced, how long shall the price of man continue to be estimated, buyers still be found, and sellers ever ready, even under the sanction of courts, to legalize their bargains? If such a system is to be upheld—if the rights of man are thus to be quibbled away by sophistical evasion, then indeed there remains no hope for suffering humanity, and it is an abolition only in name.

But, the planter may urge the tenure of his property, the value of his freehold, and the prescriptive nature of his rights. Let it be so. The slave has also his rights, suspended but not forfeited, and to arbitrate between the two is the difficulty. It is impossible in the first place to forego the principle of labour entitling to reward. To wave it, would be to consign power and right to the strongest—toil without redress to the weaker—enjoining to the latter unqualified submission to whatsoever the other might impose. To consent to the abandonment of all those moral ties on which the frame of human society is founded, would, in these our

* See Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, on the subject of the "profit of professions."

reasonings *a priori*, go to favour one class of mankind at the expense of the other; depressing the slave to the level of the brutes, and erecting the proprietor into a lord of the universe, even over his own kind. To the planter it may be urged that, to concede somewhat in order to insure the preservation and tranquillity of the whole, is the part of wisdom. He must be lost indeed to all sense of reason if he ventures to deny those precepts of natural and revealed religion which prescribe duties to all sorts and conditions of men, and teach that "charity covereth a multitude of sins." But it will hereafter appear on what his interest in this point consists. As to the slave, it must be seen that a *gradual* emancipation is most desirable even for his welfare. He is the subject of real property, the perverted object of purchase and sale—his services have been bought for a valuable consideration. In order to conciliate the concurrence of the planter thus materially implicated, he can only expect by industrious perseverance, and the accumulations of a strict frugality, to aspire in time to the purchase of his freedom by degrees, so soon as a regular system of wages is introduced in the islands. A legislative enactment on this subject would do more real honour to its framers than any measure perhaps, connected with the slave trade, since the memorable day of its abolition. But let us see in how far the planter, the West Indian interests, so predominant in the British parliament, and we may add the government itself, are severally concerned in the adoption of a more enlarged and beneficent scheme of policy. Revolutions would affect all; and though we may pronounce on the inefficacy of such partial attempts at insurrection as in Barbadoes, yet when the proportion of slaves to whites is considered, being in the island of St. Kitts alone as thirty to one, the mischiefs even attendant on those attempts are not to be laid out of calculation. The insurrection of the negroes in St. Vincent and Grenada about the year 1797, when all the estates were nearly destroyed, will long be remembered, and ought to furnish a useful lesson at the present day, when the flame of discontent appears smothered only for awhile, to burst out anew with additional horrors. But a higher motive exists to invoke impartial attention to this momentous inquiry. The history of mankind forbids us to rely upon the uninterrupted duration of a state of peace. A few years may materially vary the pacific views of different powers. In such a contingency, will it be forgotten that, during the hostilities with America, a British naval force under admiral Cockburn giving freedom to the slaves on the plantations of the Chesapeake,* received on board and transported to Nova-Scotia, a considerable body of the fugitives? Has France yet ceased to impute her reverses in St. Domingo, partly to the defeats that led to the capture of Cape St. Nicholas Mole and, partly, the ascendancy of the blacks to the instrumentality of the British arms? The evident policy of England in neutralizing that important colony may be too successfully imitated in cases where possession may not be convenient. In a state of feeling like the present on the part of the slaves, with the seeds of

* See documents, page 65.

rebellion long implanted and ready to start to life, it would not be difficult of accomplishment for a hostile force bombarding the towns, harassing the inhabitants with feigned attacks in front, and inciting the negroes to revolt in the rear, in this manner to ruin a valuable possession where conquest might not be practicable. During the late American war it was understood that a squadron of light frigates under commodore Porter was in preparation for a similar service, when intelligence of the treaty of Ghent being concluded was received.

In a series of years we have seen nations rise and fall, and maritime strength (hitherto the bulwark of British power) acquiring consistency or verging to decline, according to the vigour or decrepitude of governments.

In such a crisis as we have contemplated, the sole security of the British West India islands would rest essentially upon that attachment of the negro to his employer which it should be the object of the statesman, equally with the philanthropist, to bring about—an attachment founded upon reciprocal interests, alike necessary to each, deriving in common, protection from the government that shall reconcile the planters' rights with the fair claims of the labourer, and thereby preserve the colonies in their allegiance to the parent state. May the days of peace be far prolonged, and national animosities give way to that spirit of forbearance one to another which is no less consistent with prudence and sound policy than with the injunctions of our religion!

Essay II.

If, on surveying the four quarters of the globe, we consider that which has enjoyed fewest opportunities of foreign intercourse, and stretching between the Mediterranean sea in the north, and the Cape of Good Hope in the south, appears from its extraordinary extent, its variety of soil and climate, specially to claim the investigations of the cosmopolitan—we shall be led to the conclusion that circumstances of more than ordinary import in the history of that country must have operated to impede the march of civilization, and oppose the customary influence of commerce on a people.

That Africa, the subject of our inquiry, has been peculiarly depressed, is a melancholy truth, to be attributed to no moral incapacity in the inhabitants, but derived from the long history of aggressions committed upon its innocent population by almost every power possessed of colonies or plantations. Until these obstacles shall be removed—until *the progress of civilization*, and the consent of all Christian states shall have terminated the baleful consequences of a trade in slaves, by its entire suppression, there can be no confidence so indispensable to national prosperity—no security for persons or property, and therefore no improvement.

With regard to the allegations of those who maintain that there has been dealt out to the natives of Africa an inferior portion of natural gifts,—that the Almighty hath set a mark or stamp of degeneracy—equivalent, as it would seem, in the opinion of some, to a badge of servitude upon them, nothing can be more impious, unfounded, and unjust.

The assumptions of these interested advocates for the slave trade, proceed on the illogical basis of a *petitio principii*, or *begging of the question*; taking that for granted, as a fixed law of nature, which is not to be found in any system of philosophy, and is irreconcilable with the history of God's creation: for it is recorded in the Old Testament, that *God hath made man of one blood to dwell over all the corners of the earth*. If examples were wanting of nations in a state of nature emerging from equal barbarism, and advancing progressively to the summit of civilization and refinement, let us compare the state of the Roman empire under the kings, with the glorious days of the republic when a Cæsar and a Cicero directed its councils. If we recureven to the period when our ancestors,* assimilated in roughness to the animals of the field, displayed none of the higher energies of mind, we shall find no unfavourable analogy to cheer the hopes and stimulate the exertions of the friends to African improvement. The early Britons became an easy prey to the Roman conquerors, and successively to Danish, Saxon, and Norman invasions. Their huts were little superior to the den of the wild beast, and their bodies stained with woad, vied in decoration with the tattoo of the savage.

Even the later annals of our country reflect no pleasing images on the memory. The nation was long disgraced by intestine discord and by domestic cruelty. It was the revival of learning that, by enlightening the understanding, and exciting habits of reflection, humanized the mind of man, rendered him a better adept in the science of government, and taught him to doubt the purity of the national religion. The glorious reformation ensued, and the same people arose to greatness and renown, distinguished for intellectual acquirement and excellence in every department of genius, who, but a few centuries before, resembled the inhabitants of Africa as described by Sallust: "an untutored savage people, who knew no food but the flesh of wild animals, or the grass of the field, which they ate like the herds of cattle; a people without laws, without forms of government, without any authority over them; a race of wandering vagabonds, who had no settled habitation, but, when night came on, lay down to rest where chance directed them."

The light of knowledge, the influence of good impressions, and the benefit of education, produce those incidental differences in mankind which are erroneously ascribed altogether to natural causes. So far at least as the argument goes to invalidate the notions of those who venture to deny the identity of the species, and the susceptibility of culture in all, generally speaking, it is presumed to hold good, notwithstanding the degrees of advancement certainly vary in nations, as well as individuals, enjoying advantages apparently similar.

* It is necessary here to observe, that the author of this treatise wrote in his character as a British subject, the work being intended for publication by the African Institution in London, under the patronage of Mr. Wilberforce. *Note by the Editor.*

Doctrina sed vim promovet insitam,
Rectique cultus pectora roborant.

Conclusive proof has been furnished of a respectable degree of understanding prevailing in numerous individuals, natives of Africa, or descendants of Africa, who have visited England, some for improvement and the acquisition of knowledge in particular arts and branches of trade, others for commercial purposes. Two African youths, educated at Joseph Lancaster's national school in the Borough road, near London, lately returned to Sierra Leone, thoroughly instructed in the system of that establishment, and qualified to impart it to others. A multitude of instances might be adduced to show that the germ of knowledge does exist among the natives of Africa, needing only the fostering hand of cultivation to expand its blossoms. Witness the effects produced upon the dormant faculties of the negro when, transported to the labours of a plantation, he sees and adopts improved customs, acquires new skill, and learns from his fellow-labourers in captivity, to advance as it were, in the scale of being. Can that man be said to be on a level with the brute, who, endowed with thought, and the principle of imitation, the great source of human improvement, appears to be proportioned in his acquisitions to the opportunities of example and instruction that are afforded him? Uncultivated nature is uniformly rude and imbecile: By imitation alone we at first acquire knowledge, and the means of extending its bounds.

Steadfast in the observance and application of so important a faculty of the human mind, and keeping in view the tendency of man to adopt what appears, by observation and experience, to contribute to his welfare and advantage, may we not hope, in time, to furnish such examples, to communicate such lessons of melioration, important to their interests, as shall be acceptable to an untaught people, and calculated to shed the rays of knowledge on benighted Africa—to civilize her sons, and unfold the treasures of her commerce?

Will the return of the labouring Krooman, whose character appears to stand so favourably, after the expiration of his limited term of service, proposed in a former essay, have no effect upon his wondering countrymen, introduce no improvements, and diffuse not the useful arts employed in agriculture, trade, and domestic economy before unknown? Already we find the attention of the directors of the African Institution of London engaged on this most interesting object, and it is announced, in one of their annual reports, that they “contemplate engaging in America, or the West Indies, persons of good character, natives of Africa, or the descendants of Africans, who should instruct the colonists and natives in the cultivation and manufacture of indigo, in the best mode of raising and cleaning cotton, rice, and other articles of tropical culture.” In this view it does appear that, to afford a settlement in Africa to such American free blacks* as may voluntarily ex-

* During the past winter many efforts were made by a number of philanthropic individuals in America, to form a voluntary colony of free people of colour. The question assumed so much importance, as to be made the subject of inquiry

press a wish to repair to that country, might be productive, under certain regulations, of beneficial lessons and instructions to the natives, whilst, at the same time, the circumstance of their speaking the English language, might render their reception in the British colony of Sierra Leone, useful and agreeable to all concerned. The senate and house of representatives of the United States of America have, very properly, resolved to provide for the necessary expenses attending this measure, and in conformity with their resolution, that "a negociation with all the governments where ministers of the United States are or shall be accredited, be entered into as to the best means of effecting an immediate and entire abolition of the traffic in slaves," and that, with regard to the measure in question, "a convention with the government of Great Britain be proposed, stipulating such terms as shall be most beneficial to the colonists, while it promotes the peaceful interests of Great Britain and the United States," it is reasonable to expect that the same spirit of amity in which these resolutions are conceived will be met with a correspondent feeling on the part of the British cabinet, and followed up by the necessary arrangements. The subject is one of considerable interest to the people of America, where the coloured inhabitants have multiplied to such an extent as, in some degree, to preclude the employment of whites in cases where it certainly would be more politic. The emigration of coloured persons to a climate undoubtedly more congenial to their constitutions than that of America is for at least six months in the year, might be promoted by holding out certain encouragements to the colonists, and probably might be influenced by the reflection that, in America they hardly can expect more than a menial employment, or aspire beyond the toil of manual labour, whereas their prospects in a country composed of persons of their own complexion, far behind them in a knowledge of the arts of civilized life—a country too under British protection, and needing the employment of their experience and exertions, may well excite the ambition and adventure even of the most prudent.

A similar policy to that pursuing by the government of the United States ought to be observed by the British legislature with respect to the labourers who may hereafter resort to the West India islands. Indeed if a prohibition were enacted to prevent their purchasing property in those islands it might have the effect at once of debarring their ultimate residence and proving beneficial to Africa by the circulation of some money, and probably a little knowledge on the return of the Kroomen to their native homes. Their permanent settlement in the West Indies ought by all means to be discouraged, because it would manifestly tend to the rapid increase of the black over the white population—a case which it is incumbent on the legislature to reverse as much as possible, and the carrying trade might be no inconsiderable object to the

by the house of representatives of the United States, and a committee was appointed to report thereon, which was accordingly done on the 11th of February. The report contains some enlightened views of the committee.

shipping interest. Were even a free intercourse as to particular articles of commerce permitted between the western coast of Africa and the West Indies it might be attended with advantage to both. The run-down before the trade winds would be short and easy, though the return to Africa would require a much longer voyage, the course being northerly to clear the trades as they are termed, until reaching a proper latitude to bear away for the coast. The idea of a commerce between the two places is started principally with a view to vessels carrying passengers being duly freighted, and in order to facilitate the remittance of property in bulk on account of the labourers. The restriction of all coffee and sugar, the produce of West India estates, being consigned to the mother country alone, would of course continue to be enforced.

It is material to observe that, by opening as many sources as possible to African commerce, we pave the way for a true development of its resources, and more especially, a beneficial interest in that country. The British trade to India, first confined to a humble factory on the Coromandel coast, of scarce a mile in circumference, grew by degrees in extent and importance, until merchants became the sovereigns of the East, and an empire greater than that of the Mogul, proverbial for wealth—prolific in all that aggrandizes the possessor, rewarded the labours of a speculative company. Zeal, perseverance, constancy, valour in its servants, were the qualities leading to success, and may not the imagination conceive at some future day another Asia emerging from amid the clouds and darkness that envelop Africa? The same means are ready to be employed, the same exertions may insure similar results: the important measure of raising and maintaining on liberal terms a native Sepoy force, sealed the doom of Eastern Rajahs, and proved to be the certain precursor of those splendid achievements which extended the British empire over all the provinces, from the Indus on the one hand to the coasts of Ava on the other. The mutual jealousies of the native chiefs served only to keep each other in check, and neutralize their separate oppositions, whilst it afforded constant ground of foreign arbitration and interference. The reign of imbecility, in short, yielded to that of wisdom, foresight and vigour. At length the mighty torrent of irresistible power rolling on, as the Ganges, its rapid course, and swollen by tributary streams, swept before it antiquated establishments, reared by superstition, and long worshipped by a false idolatry. From the moment of the tide of *opinion* setting in, opinion of the superiority of the British name—from that moment the conquest of Asia is to be dated. It is so in most uncivilized countries.

Who shall say that to terminate the thralldom under which Africa now groans to abolish the iniquities of princes and potentates, dealers in human flesh, accustomed to engage in war solely to profit by the sale of prisoners, will not meet the concurrence of Africans themselves? If the friend to civilization and humanity needs a further persuasion to engage his assent, let it be considered that the regeneration of Africa is not so hopeless as to deter experiment; that she is represented in Sacred History to have sent eight

hundred bishops to the Holy Land; that Hannibal, who certainly possessed consummate capacity as a commander, was of Mauritanian blood, and that Terence was an African slave. Let him remember, that in the present day, the natives, as appears from the reports of travellers are advancing from brutal manners towards habits of order and decorum, that commerce, tillage, barter, policy, manufacture, find their way into the interior from the west and from the north. Europeans fortify their sea ports, enlarge their trade, traverse in caravans the vast expanse of internal territory, and teach them geography by their example, astronomy by their glasses, their telescopes and their mechanic powers. It is impossible to peruse the travels of Mungo Park, of Houghton, Horne-mann, Barrow, Corry, Golberry, Winterbottom and Wadstrom, without being struck with the vast resources of commerce and agricultural wealth throughout that immense tract of country, still latent, and promising abundantly to reward the enterprize of the colonist.

Sallust, introducing a brief account of Africa in his history of the Jugurthine war, describes the soil on the sea coast as producing grain in abundance and affording good pasture for cattle.* Its attractions, even in the time of the Romans, appear to have been duly appreciated, since we find that the consuls ever had an eye to Africa as an important acquisition, and Scipio Africanus, so styled in honour of his great military achievements in that country, Metellus and Marius, deemed it a field worthy of the employment of their exalted rank and abilities.

In considering the various articles of exportable produce which may be cultivated with advantage in Africa, our attention is particularly drawn to cotton, entering as it does so extensively into the uses even of the Africans themselves, as well as of manufacturing industry in Europe. With the mode of raising the cotton tree, the natives of the western coast of Africa are almost universally acquainted, although one particular species of cotton, most cultivated there, (and from which they manufacture cloth of an excellent fabric,) is so unsuitable to the European market, that the price which it would obtain would not repay the expense of raising it, and conveying it to a foreign port. Seeds, however, of the primest Georgia as well as Brazil cotton have been introduced into the country, and as it requires only six or seven months from the time of sowing to bring it to maturity, there is every reason to expect that the growth of a superior species of this plant will become general. The process of preparing it for sale is short and simple.

Gold is found in many parts of Africa, sometimes in small lumps, in a pure state, but, for the most part it is procured by merely washing, with care, the sand taken from the bed of the river. This circumstance proves the existence of gold mines in

* The British squadron in the Mediterranean during the late war, drew the most of their supplies from the north of Africa, and wheat was exported thence in considerable quantities to Gibraltar and Cadiz, from which places it found its way over Spain and Portugal.

the country, which, it is presumed may be found and opened, should the advancing civilization of Africa admit of that free intercourse which would give an opportunity to European mineralogists of exploring this source of wealth.

Ivory has hitherto formed, next to slaves, the largest branch of African commerce, and its quantity will of course not be lessened by the new circumstances in which Africa is placed.

Bees wax may be obtained in every part of Africa, and in some places, particularly the rivers Gambia and Gaboon, it forms a considerable part of the present exports. It might of course be greatly increased by encouraging the rearing of bees.

Dye woods of various kinds including *Cam-wood*, *Bar-wood* and *Fustick* are now exported, the two first in considerable quantities from Africa. Requiring no previous cultivation, but only to be cut down in order to be brought to market, and thus affording a present temptation to exertion, the commerce in articles of this description has not been equally affected by the slave trade as the commerce in those articles which require previous culture, and the profits of which are remotely prospective. Without doubt, however, when the intercourse of Africa shall become more open and secure, not only may the trade in the dye woods already specified be increased, but other valuable dye woods will probably be discovered.

Many kinds of *timber* are likewise produced in Africa, which are supposed to be well adapted for the use of cabinet makers, inlayers, and even of shipwrights. *Medicinal herbs and drugs* of an infinity of species likewise abound. *Castor oil*, *musk*, *Indian arrow root*, *tapioca* and *sago*, are produced in considerable quantities.

Gum senega and *gum copal* are imported from Africa into England in a quantity nearly equal to the demand, and might be more extensively procured. Besides these there are many other gums in Africa, which, if properly examined, might prove useful, both to our manufacturers and chymists. Gums, as was observed in the case of dye woods, require no cultivation, and hardly any labour to prepare them for market.

Palm oil, which is useful in the manufacture of soap, may be obtained in considerable quantities.

Indigo grows wild in almost every part of the African coast, and might therefore easily be brought into cultivation. Almost all the indigo which is now consumed in Europe, is imported from the East Indies under the disadvantages of a voyage more than thrice as long as that from Africa. Besides the indigo, there is another plant which the natives use as a blue dye, which appears to impart a more indelible colour, and which, should it stand the test of experiment, might be cultivated.

Rice forms the principal food of the Africans, and might doubtless become an article of export for the supply of the West Indies, as provided for in the former part of this essay.

Colonel Maxwell, commandant at Sierra Leone, has erected, among other things, a saw-mill to go by water; and a mill for

cleaning rice. Both of these, and particularly the latter, are calculated to be highly beneficial to the settlement. Colonel Maxwell states, that all the natives in the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone were busily employed in cultivating rice, which, he says, might be grown in almost any quantity; and, as the *white* rice of Africa is of the best quality, he thinks that, if cleaning mills were erected at Sierra Leone, African rice might soon become an article of considerable export.

Several varieties of the *coffee*, one of a kind not inferior, it is supposed, to the Mocha, are found growing wild in the mountains of Sierra Leone. The cultivation of this article has been begun at that colony, and promises to succeed. It may thence be extended to every part of the continent.

Sugar cane of an excellent quality grows with hardly any culture, in many parts of Africa. Its existence and luxuriant growth seem to show the fertility of the country.

Malaguetta pepper, an article in considerable demand, grows wild in great abundance on the windward coast.

A variety of other species, including the *cayenne*, *ginger*, *cubebs*, *cardamums*, species of *nutmeg*, and *cinnamon*, are found in Africa, and might be cultivated with advantage.

Tobacco is cultivated on a small scale, in various parts of Africa, and might, if it were desirable, be cultivated still more extensively.

A few *hides* are now imported from the river Gambia: the number will doubtless increase, as cattle can be more securely reared.

Sponge may also be procured thence.

But besides the articles above enumerated, as already existing in Africa, there are others of a very valuable kind, such as *opium*, which might easily be transported thither. The *cochineal* and the *silk worm* might also be reared there. In short, it may be said, that there are no articles produced between the tropics which may not be naturalized in that part of Western Africa which has hitherto been the theatre of the slave trade.

It is hardly necessary to add that all the different fruits, esculent roots, and grains, which grow in other tropical countries are raised there; such as cocoa nuts, limes, lemons, oranges, plantains, bananas, papaws, guavas, melons, pine apples, cashew nuts, tamarinds, pumpkins, yams, cassada, eddoes, Indian corn, millet, &c. No part of the fruits which have been mentioned, however, could be made to form any part of the return cargo, on account of the length of the voyage, except in the shape of pickles or preserves.

Salt is manufactured on the sea coast (for the purpose of supplying the interior where it is in high demand,) and the quantity might be much enlarged.

Boom is a place never equalled in Africa for fertility. Sugar cane grows wild in Bagroo equal to any in the West Indies. And

as for the interior country behind the Sherbro, it must be rich, on account of the quantity of rice and cotton cloth they bring down.

The Satees or travelling merchants carry the fruit of the *cola tree*, famed for its tonic qualities, from the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone, to every part of the continent, even to Egypt and Abyssinia.

In "an account of the native Africans in the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone; to which is added, an account of the present state of medicine among them," (sold by Hatchard, Piccadilly,) is contained much important information on the subject of the medicinal plants which are found growing in Africa.

The Arabic language has been extended by means of the Mahomedans, over a large part of the western coast of Africa. The knowledge of this language by persons resident on the coast, would greatly tend to facilitate our intercourse with the interior, while it would afford a ready means of spreading useful knowledge throughout Africa.

The Susoo language too, generally spoken in many of the provinces, is remarkably simple and easy of acquisition; a circumstance that should encourage perseverance in acquiring it.

For a more detailed account of the productions of Africa, particular reference should be had to the labours of the Sierra Leone Company, of the African Institution, and of the African Association to promote discoveries in the interior of the continent of Africa.

In the works of those writers before enumerated, will be found matter of the highest interest to every friend of this important and interesting cause; but there are impediments to the success of any plan of melioration still existing, which have long prevailed, and call upon all good men to aid in the removal. So long as the traffic in slaves to Cuba and Brazil shall continue without remission, the abolition of other countries will, as to Africa, the great object of our solicitude, be ineffectual to produce the relief she needs. Desolation continues to mark the ravages of the existing trade, and not until its final extinction by a general adoption of the system of hired labourers, practised and recommended, can any hope be formed of civilizing Africa. Tillage and all the arts of industry are discouraged by the insecurity of persons and of property. "Why should I labour?" inquires the negro; "why amass wealth?" "I must still be a slave, my profits may still be seized and myself sold to the white men."

Similar reasoning was heard by Chenier in Morocco, by Volney in Syria, by Bernier in Mogulstan; the precarious state of man, the uncertainty of possession checked the industry of individuals in those countries.

—'What then avail their fatal treasures, hid
Deep in the bowels of the pitying earth?
What all that Africs golden rivers roll,
Her odorous woods, and shining ivory stores?
Ill fated race! the softening arts of peace,
Whate'er the humanizing muses teach;

The godlike wisdom of the temper'd breast,
 Progressive truth, the patient force of thought,
 Investigation calm, whose silent powers
 Command the world! the *Light* that leads to *Heaven*.
 Kind equal rule, the government of laws,
 And all-protecting *Freedom*, which alone
 Sustains the name and dignity of man:
 These are not theirs.'

THOMSON.

To impart these blessings, so feelingly described by the poet, to suffering Africa, will be one of the happy consequences of an extension of British rule, and the administration of British laws in the interior of that vast continent. The day may yet appear, when, rivalling Asia in fertility and cultivation:—surpassing her in the advantages of proximity to Europe, a new empire shall arise, the special object of care and protection, dispensing order, civilization and happiness, and securing to its subjects the privileges of their being.

The man who shall take the lead in this great work, regenerating, under Providence, a depressed and unhappy land, will deserve the lasting gratitude of enslaved millions,* and the choicest honours of his approving country.

Letter from Governor Elliot, to the Earl of Liverpool, Secretary of State; dated Antigua, Nov. 21, 1810.

The governments of the smaller islands were formed in times when many of the proprietors lived upon their estates, and the white population was, in some instances, perhaps ten times as numerous as it now is. Of the few white inhabitants who remain, managers, overseers, self-created lawyers, self-educated physicians, and adventurous merchants, with little real capital and scanty credit, compose the greatest part. The acquirements of education among many of this description of persons, are very unequal to the task of taking a share in the governments. The prevalence of principle, either moral or religious, is also, I fear, not to be fairly calculated from the repetition of the hacknied expressions, of which an ostentatious use is frequently made in addresses, and on all occasions meant to meet the public eye at home.

To collect from such a state of society, men fit to be legislators, judges or jurymen, is *perfectly impracticable*. Individual interest—personal influence—animosity of party feuds, weigh down the scale of justice, and divert the course of legislative authority into acts of arbitrary and unjustifiable power, cloaked under the semblance, and dignified with the name, of constitutional acts.

Run-away Slaves.

During the progress of the war, a considerable number of slaves, the property of citizens of the United States, escaped to

* Golberry, like Mungo Park, shows that the negro chiefs enslave, in the interior, millions yearly: while the traders take off only 30 or 40,000.

the British forces, induced to do so by proclamation, issued by British officers, promising them, in the name of His Majesty, protection and freedom. At the conclusion of the war, seven hundred and two slaves, it is stated, were carried away, in British ships, from Cumberland Island and its vicinity, in the state of Georgia, and a number perhaps still greater from Tangier, in the state of Virginia.

ART. IX.—*Painting of "The Entrance of Christ into the City of Jerusalem."*—By H. SARGENT, Esq. of Boston.

OUR present number is embellished with an engraving of this justly admired production, from a copy taken by Mr. Penniman. We are indebted to the politeness of Col. Sargent for this privilege, as well as for permission to copy his great work, "*The Landing of our Forefathers on the Rock at Plymouth*," than which there can scarcely be any subject for a picture more interesting to our countrymen.

We must content ourselves at present with inserting the key or explanation, as a necessary accompaniment to the engraving, and propose hereafter, when we are enabled to give "*The Landing of our Forefathers*" to enter into an examination of both these subjects.

The names of West, Stewart, Trumbull, Vanderlyn, Sully, and the amateur artist whose labours form the subject of our present notice, do honour to our native talent, and our legislature, in conformity to the example of every enlightened government, have wisely resolved to encourage a propensity to works of taste, by affording public employment for the development of a rising genius for the Fine Arts. The occupation of Trumbull on a series of historical subjects, illustrative of the principal events in the ever memorable era of the revolution, by order of congress, affords a pleasing evidence of attention prevailing in favour of this department of excellence, which we hope to see extended to the association of some of those artists just mentioned. The sentiments lately expressed by an honourable member in the house of representatives display an unison of feeling with the desire of, we believe, all who wish well to the progress of national taste.

"Permit me," said Mr. Newton (of Virginia) "to congratulate my country on her rising fame. The genius and skill displayed by our celebrated masters, secure to each an imperishable fame, and to their country true renown. A new epoch has commenced. Its progress is auspicious. The Grecian, Italian, Flemish, French, and British schools will be rivalled and equalled in time by our own. I congratulate those who are endowed with genius, but whose means are too limited to enable them to seek, in distant regions, the acquirements necessary to form and fix their judgments, and to give to their taste the characters of delicacy and correctness, on the prospect they have of pursuing their studies in their native land, under political institutions that give its genius full scope, and the enjoyment of its creations, and that leave to

emulation the influence of developing its powers. The inspiration thus kindled, diffused and made active, will bestow on their works whatever can delight and enchant the mind, and soften and meliorate the heart."

Mr. Sargent is a self-taught genius, and influenced alone by a love of the arts, in the prosecution of his pencil, being a gentleman of fortune. He is the brother of Lucius M. Sargent, esq. the poet, and author of several admired patriotic songs.

It is somewhat singular that, although Mr. Sargent has executed two such fine paintings, his merits have been little noticed out of Boston. He is not, it is true, an artist by profession. Indeed, we have observed with regret that various subjects of general interest are confined to particular sections of the union. Much reciprocal information might be disseminated by the communications of intelligent correspondents in the different states, which will always meet a ready notice in our pages, and we shall be highly indebted to all such friends to knowledge and to their country.

EXPLANATION OF THE PICTURE.

The subject is more particularly taken from the 35th to the 38th verses, inclusive of the 10th chapter of St. Luke.

"And they cast their garments upon the colt, and they set Jesus thereon; and as he went they spread their clothes in the way.

"And when he was come nigh, even now at the descent of the Mount of Olives the whole multitude of the disciples began to rejoice and praise God with a loud voice, for all the mighty works that they had seen; saying, blessed be the king that cometh in the name of the Lord; peace in Heaven, and glory in the highest."

THE principal figure near the centre of the picture is intended to represent the person of JESUS CHRIST, seated upon the wild ass's colt, "on which never man rode"

The animal is supposed to be directed by the will of its rider, having neither bridle or other visible means of direction. The irradiation of supernatural light around the head of the Saviour, relieves and surrounds the whole figure. At the right hand of Jesus is Lazarus, who a short time before the entrance into Jerusalem, had been raised from the dead. The female next to him, with both hands raised and drapey over her right arm, is Martha, the sister of Lazarus. The full length figure, with dark curled hair, is Judas Iscariot. Farther to the right of Jesus, with a bald head, is St. Peter. Above, with his head bound, is one diseased. Below, and in the foreground, a Roman soldier or Centurion, has thrown his sword at the feet of Jesus, expressive of his entire submission to his will. This act of the Centurion, is intended as a contrast to that of a conspirator in the dark corner of the picture, who in the agitation and eagerness of the moment, whilst pointing with one hand, has involuntarily drawn his dagger with the other. Near the Centurion are his wife and family. In the extreme corner of this part of the picture, is "one of those who sold doves." Higher up, leaning on his staff, a soothsayer or magician is discovered in company with the conspirators. The woman bearing an olive branch, is one of the multitude which followed Jesus. Behind her is a young female, intended for the daughter of Jarius, miraculously raised from the dead.

with her father, a ruler of the synagogue, distinguished by his raised hands and a turban on his head. Near the frame and not far from the conspirators, are two men, one of whom is showing his once crippled arm to his astonished friend.

The multitude is seen in perspective, winding over the rocks in the back ground, where it is finally lost to the view by its distance. Many are seen passing under the arches of an ancient aqueduct, at too great distance to be particularly noticed.

On the other side of the picture, and in the foreground are several females on their knees. Mary Magdalene is seen having thrown off her outward garments. The next, with her hands crossed, is intended for "Joanna, the wife of Chuza, Herod's steward," with Mary (the mother of James) and Susanna, women who had been healed of evil spirits and infirmities, "who had ministered unto Christ of their substance," and who, after the crucifixion, discovered that Jesus had risen from the sepulchre, and went and informed the apostles.

The person a little above Mary Magdalene, is Nicodemus, a Pharisee, and a ruler of the Jews, who worshipped Jesus in secret, "the same that went to him by night and said unto him. "Rabbi, we know that thou art a teacher come from God: for no man can do these miracles that thou doest, except God be with him," &c. A female in front of Nicodemus, has caught up the garment of Christ to put it to her lips. Below, near the feet of the ass, one of the multitude has prostrated himself to the ground, expressive of his entire devotion. A blind man, who is also lame, is behind Nicodemus, and his aged wife, who is near him, has one hand on his shoulder, while the other is raised in the moment of expectation, believing, that should he be able to touch the garment of the Saviour, he will be made to see. She is supposed to have informed him of the near approach of Christ, whilst he, full of faith and hope, gropes with his hand in full expectation of beholding the light. On the right, a tall figure, and one with a turban represent certain Greeks, "who had come up to Jerusalem, to worship at the feast of the passover;" they had a wish to see Jesus, and applied for that purpose to one of the apostles, Philip of Bethsaida, of Galilee, who is seen near them on the extreme right. At the left hand of Jesus, is John, Thomas, and others, his disciples. A man with a thin pallid countenance, who has been lame, raises his crutches in the joy of the moment denoting that he is no longer a cripple. On his left a female, with a turban, is pressing forward with her child to touch the garment of Christ, as was the custom, particularly for those who were troubled with any malady. Next to the child is seen a man, with dark visage, having a phylactery on his forehead; he is one of the Pharisees, who cried out from the multitude, "Master; rebuke thy disciples;" to whom Jesus answered, "I tell you if these should hold their peace, the stones would immediately cry out."

Others, who cannot see for the "press," raise their hands or their children, and shout with the multitude. Over the man with the crutches, is seen Caiaphas, the high priest, who with a few attendants, are standing at a distance on the ruins of a battered wall, beyond which rises a partial view of the city of Jerusalem, with its temple, towers, &c. Here the multitude are seen collecting upon the battlements and in the porch of a temple; here also mountains and lofty precipices rise, on which are castles overlooking the whole. The city is obscured by the mists, and shadows of the driving clouds, portending a rising storm.

ART X. *Anecdote of Colter, one of Lewis and Clarke's party—his narrow escape.* From Bradbury's travels in the interior of America, in 1809, 1810, and 1811.

THE treatment experienced by Colter is to be ascribed to the circumstance of his having spent some time among the Crow Indians, a tribe at enmity with the Blackfeet nation, and accompanying them in one of their attacks upon the latter,—his participation in this affair did not escape the retentive recollection of Indian memory, and when he came amongst the Blackfeet, his safety depended on secretion.

The hostility of the Blackfeet Indians in this case may be traced moreover to the circumstance of one of them having been killed by Lewis. They are on the whole, a peaceable tribe, now friendly to the United States, but like the rest, observe the *lex talionis*. They inhabit a part remote from the white settlements, on the head waters of the Missouri.

“ This man came to St. Louis in May, 1810, in a small canoe, from the head waters of the Missouri, a distance of three thousand miles, which he traversed in thirty days; I saw him on his arrival, and received from him an account of his adventures after he had separated from Lewis and Clarke's party: one of these, from its singularity, I shall relate. On the arrival of the party on the head waters of the Missouri, Colter, observing the appearance of abundance of beaver being there, he got permission to remain and hunt for some time, which he did in company with a man of the name of Dixon, who had traversed the immense tract of country from St. Louis to the head waters of the Missouri alone. Soon after he separated from Dixon, and *trapped* in company with a hunter named Potts; and aware of the hostility of the Blackfeet Indians, one of whom had been killed by Lewis, they set their traps at night, and took them up early in the morning, remaining concealed during the day. They were examining their traps early one morning, in a creek about six miles from that branch of the Missouri called Jefferson's Fork, and were ascending in a canoe, when they suddenly heard a great noise, resembling the trampling of animals; but they could not ascertain the fact, as the high perpendicular banks on each side of the river impeded their view. Colter immediately pronounced it to be occasioned by Indians, and advised an instant retreat, but was accused of cowardice by Potts, who insisted that the noise was caused by buffalo, and they proceeded on. In a few minutes afterwards their doubts were removed, by a party of Indians making their appearance on both sides of the creek, to the amount of five or six hundred, who beckoned them to come ashore. As retreat was now impossible, Colter turned the head of the canoe to the shore; and at the moment of its touching, an Indian seized the rifle belonging to Potts; but Colter, who is a remarkably strong man, immediately retook it, and handed it to Potts, who remained in the canoe, and on receiving it pushed off into the river. He had scarcely quitted the shore when an arrow was shot at him, and he cried out, “ *Colter, I am wounded.*” Colter remonstrated with him on the folly of attempting to escape, and urged him to come ashore. Instead of complying, he instantly levelled his rifle at an Indian, and shot him dead on the spot. This conduct, situated as he was, may appear to

have been an act of madness; but it was doubtless the effect of sudden, but sound reasoning; for if taken alive, he must have expected to be tortured to death, according to their custom. He was instantly pierced with arrows so numerous, that, to use the language of Colter, "*he was made a riddle of.*" They now seized Colter, stripped him entirely naked, and began to consult on the manner in which he should be put to death. They were first inclined to set him up as a mark to shoot at; but the chief interfered, and seizing him by the shoulder, asked him if he could run fast? Colter, who had been some time amongst the Kee-kat-sa, or Crow Indians, had in a considerable degree acquired the Blackfoot language, and was also well acquainted with Indian customs, he knew that he had now to run for his life, with the dreadful odds of five or six hundred against him, and those armed Indians; therefore cunningly replied that he was a very bad runner, although he was considered by the hunters as remarkably swift. The chief now commanded the party to remain stationary, and led Colter out on the prairie three or four hundred yards, and released him, bidding him *to save himself if he could.* At that instant the horrid war whoop sounded in the ears of poor Colter, who, urged with the hope of preserving life, ran with a speed at which he was himself surprised. He proceeded towards the Jefferson Fork, having to traverse a plain six miles in breadth, abounding with the prickly pear, on which he was every instant treading with his naked feet. He ran nearly half way across the plain before he ventured to look over his shoulder, when he perceived that the Indians were very much scattered, and that he had gained ground to a considerable distance from the main body; but one Indian, who carried a spear, was much before all the rest, and not more than a hundred yards from him. A faint gleam of hope now cheered the heart of Colter; he derived confidence from the belief that escape was within the bounds of possibility, but that confidence was nearly being fatal to him, for he exerted himself to such a degree, that the blood gushed from his nostrils, and soon almost covered the fore part of his body. He had now arrived within a mile of the river, when he distinctly heard the appalling sound of footsteps behind him, and every instant expected to feel the spear of his pursuer. Again he turned his head, and saw the savage not twenty yards from him. Determined if possible to avoid the expected blow, he suddenly stopped, turned round, and spread out his arms. The Indian, surprised by the suddenness of the action, and perhaps at the bloody appearance of Colter, also attempted to stop, but exhausted with running, he fell whilst endeavouring to throw his spear, which stuck in the ground, and broke in his hand. Colter instantly snatched up the pointed part, with which he pinned him to the earth, and then continued his flight. The foremost of the Indians, on arriving at the place, stopped till others came up to join them, when they set up a hideous yell. Every moment of this time was improved by Colter, who, although fainting and exhausted, succeeded in gaining the skirting of the cotton wood trees, on the borders of the fork, through which he ran, and plunged into the river. Fortunately for him, a little below this place there was an island, against the upper point of which a raft of drift timber had lodged, he dived under the raft, and after several efforts, got his head above water amongst the trunks of trees, covered over with smaller wood to the depth of several feet. Scarcely had he secured himself, when the Indians arrived on the river, screeching and

yelling, as Colter expressed it, "like so many devils." They were frequently on the raft during the day, and were seen through the chinks by Colter, who was congratulating himself on his escape, until the idea arose that they might set the raft on fire. In horrible suspense he remained until night, when hearing no more of the Indians, he dived from under the raft, and swam silently down the river to a considerable distance, when he landed, and travelled all night. Although happy in having escaped from the Indians, his situation was still dreadful: he was completely naked under a burning sun: the soles of his feet were entirely filled with the thorns of the prickly pear; he was hungry, and had no means of killing game, although he saw abundance around him, and was at least seven days journey from Lisa's Fort, on the Bighorn branch of the Roche Jaune river. These are circumstances under which almost any man but an American hunter would have despaired. He arrived at the fort in seven days, having subsisted on a root much esteemed by the Indians of the Missouri, now known by naturalists as *Psoralea esculenta*.

After the preceding extract it seems but justly due to add the following testimony in favour of Indian hospitality. *From the same.*

No people on earth discharge the duties of hospitality with more cordial good-will than the Indians. On entering a lodge, I was always met by the master, who first shook hands with me, and immediately looked for his pipe: before he had time to light it, a bear-skin, or that of a buffalo, was spread for me to sit on, although they sat on the bare ground. When the pipe was lighted, he smoked a few whiffs, and then handed it to me; after which it went round to all the men in the lodge. While this was going on, the squaw prepared something to eat, which, when ready, was placed before me on the ground. The squaw, in some instances, examined my dress; if any repair was wanting, she brought a small leather bag, in which she kept her awls and split sinew, and put it to rights. After conversing as well as we could by signs, if it was near night, I was made to understand that a bed was at my service.

ART. XI.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy Literature, and Politics.*

To the editor of the Monthly Magazine.
SIR—The French chymists have, among other traits of their superior ingenuity, been laudibly industrious in turning to the best account that prolific plant THE POTATO; and, during a late sojourn in Paris, I collected the following particulars in regard to two very important uses of its roots and its tops. They are, through your valuable Magazine of science and truth, at the service of the world.

Bath, Aug. 1817. B. JONES.

On the Distillation of Spirits of Wine (Alcohol) from Potatoes.

A French lady, the countess de N***—whom political events compelled to change her chateau, on the banks of the

Saone, for a cottage eight leagues from Vienna—has established, on the small farm she occupies, a distillation of brandy from potatoes; which she has found to be very lucrative. The brandy of twenty degrees of Reaumur is very pure, and has neither taste nor smell different from that produced by the distillation of grapes. The method she employs is very simple, and within every person's reach.

Take 100lb. of potatoes, well washed, dress them by steam, and let them be bruised to powder with a roller, &c. In the mean time, take 4lb. of ground malt, steep it in luke-warm water, and then pour into the fermenting back, and pour on it twelve quarts of boiling water; this water is stirred about, and the

bruised potatoes thrown in, and well stirred about with wooden rakes, till every part of the potatoes is well saturated with the liquor.

Immediately six or eight ounces of yeast is to be mixed with twenty-eight gallons of water, of a proper warmth to make the whole mass of the temperature of from twelve to fifteen degrees of Reaumur; there is to be added half-a-pint to a pint of good brandy.

The fermenting back must be placed in a room to be kept, by means of a stove, at a temperature of fifteen to eighteen degrees of Reaumur. The mixture must be left to remain at rest.

The back must be large enough to suffer the mass to rise seven or eight inches, without running over. If, notwithstanding this precaution, it does so, a little must be taken out, and returned when it falls a little: the back is then covered again, and the fermentation is suffered to finish without touching it—which takes place generally in five or six days. This is known by its being perceived that the liquid is quite clear, and the potatoes fallen to the bottom of the back. The fluid is decanted, and the potatoes pressed dry.

The distillation is by vapour, with a wooden or copper still, on the plan of count Rumford. The product of the first distillation is low wines.

When the fermentation has been favourable, from every 100lb. of potatoes, six quarts and upwards of good brandy, of twenty degrees of the areometer, are obtained; which, put into new casks, and afterwards browned with burnt sugar, like the French brandies, is not to be distinguished from them.

The countess de N. has dressed and distilled per diem 1000lb. of potatoes at twice, which gives sixty to seventy quarts of good brandy. We may judge from this essay what would be the advantages of such an operation, if carried on on a grand scale, and throughout the year.

The residue of the distillation is used as food for the stock of her farm; which consists of thirty-four horned cattle, sixty pigs, and sixty sheep: they all are excessively fond of it when mixed with water, and the cows yield abundance of milk. The sheep use about five quarts per diem each; viz. one half in the morning, and one half at night. The malt must be fresh-ground: the countess has it ground every week.

Remarks, by Judge Cooper.

On the above article respecting potatoes, it may be observed, that ardent spirit distilled from potatoes has been a practice in Switzerland for these twenty-five years; and has been practised in the back parts of Pennsylvania for at least these fifteen years: so far back as that, potatoe-whiskey was made in Lycoming county.

The potatoes may be either baked or steamed. If steamed, the most economical mode of so doing when it is pursued as a business, is this: fix in the ground one or more cast-iron boilers with a flange resting on the surface of the ground. The fire place is made underneath below the surface, and the chimney carried up on one side. The width of the boiler should be such as to admit of a hogshead just to enter into it at the mouth. Wash the potatoes with a birch broom in a vessel through which a stream of water passes, or in a trough under a pump. Bore augur-holes in the bottom of the hogshead; fill the hogshead with washed potatoes. Half fill the boiler with water, or make it three parts full. Roll on the hogshead full of potatoes; cover them loosely with the head. Make the water boil. The steam passes through the augur-holes, and in half an hour your potatoes are cooked either for cattle or the distillery. Have ready another hogshead full, and when one is steamed, roll it off and roll on another.

These potatoes mashed, and treated like chopped rye, will yield a pleasant wholesome spirit. Now, as to the profit.

The quantity of whiskey procured, seems to depend on the quantity of starch in the grain distilled: for starch is convertible into sugar, and sugar into alcohol by oxygenation: pursue the process of oxygenation, and you convert alcohol into vinegar.

Rye contains about thirty-six, or from that to forty per cent. of starch, while potatoes do not contain more than twenty per cent.

Suppose an acre well cultivated produces twenty bushels of rye on the average of the crop of a plantation; and each bushel of rye weighs 60lbs: then the weight of rye on an acre will be 1200lbs. and it may yield forty per cent, or 480lbs. of starch or matter convertible into whiskey.

Let an acre of potatoes be calculated at 250 bushels, each bushel weighing 60lbs. and the quantity of starch

one fifth of the whole. Then an acre of potatoes will yield three thousand pounds weight of starch convertible into alcohol. The chopping may be set against the steaming, for what with toll and carriage chopping will diminish the quantity one ninth, or one eighth.

These facts and suggestions merit consideration. T. C.]

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On the Means of extracting Potass from Potato tops.

One of the most important discoveries of the present day is that of a druggist of Amiens, by which Europe will be freed from the heavy tribute she pays to America for the article of potass. The author of this discovery has, in a truly patriotic manner, made known his discovery—after ascertaining, by a series of experiments, the truth of his conclusions. The French Society of Agriculture, and the Society for Encouragement of National Industry, have both named commissioners to frame official reports; in the mean time, we feel it important to give an account of the process, in the hope that, even in the present season, it may be turned to account—as it interests landlords, tenants, merchants, and manufacturers.

It is necessary to cut off the potato-tops the moment that the flowers begin to fall, as that is the period of their greatest vigour; they must be cut off at four or five inches from the ground, with a very sharp knife. Fresh sprouts spring, which not only answer all the purposes of conducting the roots to maturity, but tend to an increase of their volume, as they (the sprouts) demand less nourishment than the old top. The tops may be suffered to remain on the ground where cut: in eight or ten days they are sufficiently dry without turning, and may be carted, either home or to a corner of the field, where a hole is to be dug in the earth, about five feet square, and two feet deep (the combustion would be too rapid, and the ashes cool too quick, and thereby diminish the quantity of alkali, were they burnt in the open air). The ashes must be kept red-hot as long as possible: when the fire is strong, tops that are only imperfectly dried may be thrown in, and even green ones will then burn well enough.

The ashes extracted from the hole must be put in a vessel, and boiling

water be poured upon it, as then the water must be evaporated: for these two operations potato-tops may be used alone as firing in the furnace, and the ashes collected. There remains after the evaporation a dry saline reddish substance, known in commerce under the name of *salin*; the more the ashes are boiled, the grayer and more valuable the *salin* becomes.

The *salin* must then be calcined in a very hot oven, until the whole mass presents a uniform reddish brown. In cooling it remains dry, and in fragments—bluish within, and white on the surface; in which state it takes the name of potass.

The ashes, exhausted of their alkaline principle, afford excellent manure for land intended to be planted with potatoes.

The following is a table of the results obtained in France:—

An acre planted with potatoes,	
at one foot distance, gives	lbs.
plants	40,000
These 40,000 plants yield, on an	
average, 3lb. per plant at	
least, or of green tops ...	120,000
On drying they are reduced to	40,000
This quantity produces of ashes	7,500
The evaporation gives of ashes,	
exhausted of alkali	5,000
Salin	2,500
The <i>salin</i> loses ten to fifteen per	
cent. in calcination, which gives	
of potass	2,200

All these estimates are taken at the lowest, by which it is evident that upwards of 2,000lb. of potass may be obtained, in addition to an increased crop, from every acre of potatoes, or a value far exceeding that of the crop itself. Farmers of course will next year turn this discovery to the best account, in planting those potatoes which yield the greatest quantity of tops. The expenses of preparing the potass, as above described, including every thing, is about six guineas per acre.

*** I cannot conclude these articles without inviting the cultivators of England and Ireland to instantly seize the immense advantages afforded by the two discoveries here announced. The former will free us from our tribute to France for brandies, a commerce which the emperor Napoleon turned to such good account during the war—insisting on British vessels, which car-

ried over staple commodities to France, to return with cargoes of wine and brandy; and the latter will, it is trusted, free commerce, and our diers in particular, of the necessity of applying to Russia and America for potass, of which our consumption is immense. I will, in an early number, give the French methods of making the best brandies, which I collected in the same capital.

Mon. Mag.

Anecdotes of Bonaparte.

One day, Bonaparte, seeing near his person one of those beings who know not a posture sufficiently humble, by which they suppose they can obtain some favors, said to those who surrounded him, "I know not how it happens, that, in order to understand this man, who is eight inches taller than myself. I am obliged to stoop every time that I speak to him."

As a body of troops passed in review before Bonaparte at the Carrousel, his horse became so unruly, that his hat fell off in his exertions to restrain it. A young soldier, who happened to be near him, picked up the hat, and presented it to him. "Thank you, captain," said Napoleon. "In what regiment, sire?" said the young man. A few days after, the young man, with whose answer Bonaparte was much pleased, was unexpectedly raised by brevet to the rank of captain in the Imperial Guard.

ib.

Interview with Napoleon Bonaparte at St. Helena.—

The subjoined was received here from London in the most authentic channel of a communication from the Reverend Mr. Griffith A. M. Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, chaplain to the embassy to China, and Preceptor to Lord Amherst's two sons. This gentleman in company with his lordship, had a long interview with Bonaparte, on their return from China.

He asked a number of questions without waiting for many answers; he began by asking from what university? what is the religion of the Chinese? do they believe in the immortality of the soul? he said to Ellis that Russia was the power now to be feared. If she organized Poland she would prove invincible. That she always had a longing after Turkey, and he had always stood

in her way in that quarter: that Austria would compromise the matter with her for a few provinces—that the French and English were the only disciplined troops; but what can you do, though you have on your side the *bravoure des siècles*, whilst you have only 45,000 men, you should stick to the empire of the sea and not interfere with continental politics (rather sly) and then you will send your ambassadors to every court and ask what you please. I know the mischiefs of a blockade. A coast blockaded, is in the state of my face says he, which is now rubbed over with oil, and deprived of its natural perspiration. Your countrymen formerly were thrifty merchants, never made peace without gaining something, but now they have become fine gentlemen, and ruin themselves by generosity.

You should have secured commercial advantages from Portugal, and so from the allied powers at the peace, but Lord Cast. became a courtier, and now you are insulted with commercial restrictions by every state in Europe, much more than when I shut the ports against you.

When I made a Frenchman a soldier, I deprived him of his peace and happiness; when a Russian is made a soldier, he thereby gains his freedom, and the countries he visits are all much finer than his own.

England does not take sufficient advantage of its naval strength, it acts like Francis, who had a field of artillery much finer than any which had been brought into action before his time, yet he lost the whole advantage of it by rushing sword in hand, at the head of a select body of troops, brandishing *la grande epee a la main* between his own artillery and the enemy—he denied the book attributed to him, said it was a good imitation." *Ed. An.*

Chymical Amusement; By Frederick Accum, Operative Chemist, &c. &c.

This amusing and instructive work will form a valuable addition to the Elementary Treatises on Chymistry already in the hands of the public. The author is well known both by his publications and his lectures; and by this little volume he has entitled himself to that praise which will never be denied to scientific professors who

communicate the result of their experience in a popular and attractive form.

"The following pages," says Mr. Accum, "have been written with a view to blend chymical science with rational amusement. To the student, they may serve as a set of popular instructions, for performing a variety of curious and instructive experiments, well calculated for illustrating the most striking facts which the science of chymistry has to offer. To give effect to this object, I have selected such experiments only, as may be performed with ease and safety in the closet; and the exhibition of which requires neither costly apparatus, nor complicated instruments. And that the experiments may be of greater value, than merely to afford amusement for a leisure hour, I have added the explanation to each individual process, in order to enable the operator to contemplate the phenomena with advantage, as particular objects of study, if his inclination should lead him that way."

The work comprises CIII interesting experiments, which, it will readily be acknowledged, when performed by a student himself are better adapted to fix the attention, and have a more permanent effect upon the mind, than either bare positions of precepts, or the rapid illustrations inseparable from public and popular courses of lectures.

— *Gent. Mag.*

A Case which lately occurred in the Royal Dispensary for the diseases of the ear, where a boy born deaf and dumb was restored to both hearing and speech, will show the rapid improvement in the medical practice of the present day. The pathology of the ear, neglected till of late, has now attained a vast importance by the institution of a dispensary for its diseases; and the subject of deafness being now taken up by the Royal College of Surgeons as the theme of their annual prize, will tend to throw additional light on this interesting malady.

ib.

Mode of ascertaining the comparative Value of each cow's milk in a dairy, (from the Farmer's Journal).

Lincolnshire, August 26, 1816.

SIR,—I have not observed that the valuable improvement communicated to the Oxfordshire Agricultural society by

their worthy president, Mr. Fane, of a method of ascertaining the comparative value of the milk of each cow in a dairy, has yet found its way into your paper. I trouble you with this to state the manner in which I have availed myself of it, with the complete approbation of my wife, her housekeeper, and her dairy maid.

The principle of the invention is, that if milk is poured into a glass and suffered to remain, the division between the cream that swims upon it, and the milk below, will be so plain and evident, that the depth of the cream may be easily measured; of course if the milk of any cow produces more cream than that of another, the difference may be correctly ascertained; this may be done in any glass vessel having upright sides: a tumbler, for instance, or, what is better, one of those glasses in which shopkeepers preserve their sugar plums and such like wares. If the depth of milk poured into a glass, be exactly 6 inches and 2-8ths, every 1-8th of an inch in depth of the cream swimming upon it, will be equal to 2 per cent. of the amount of the whole of the milk.

The apparatus I use consists of tubes of glass about 1-2 an inch in diameter, and about 11 inches long, fixed upright in a wooden frame, each tube having a line round it marked by the glassman exactly 10 inches from the bottom. At milking time each tube is filled up to the line with the milk of a cow; after standing 12 hours the cream which floats upon the milk is measured by a scale of 10 parts to an inch, as the whole depth of the milk and cream is 10 inches, each division will represent one per cent. of the whole; of course, if the milk given by a cow at a meal is one gallon, or 8 pints, and the thickness of the cream that floats upon it measures 14 divisions, multiply the number of pints of milk (8,) by the depth of the cream, 14 divisions, and the result will be, that the produce of the cream of that meal is 112, or one pint 12-100. These tubes may be bought of Mr. Newman, in Lisle Street, Leicester Fields, for 9d. each. Care must be taken to fill the tube as soon as the pail is taken from under the cow, for if any delay takes place, some of the cream will have ascended towards the top. The milk should be taken from the middle of the pail, and poured into

the tube without froth, which is done by dipping a cream pot below the froth and filling the tube from thence, after having struck off the froth with the blade of a knife.

Rich milk is not white but brown, as is evident by comparing the milk of different cows when in the glass tubes; by the colour of the milk a tolerable estimate may be made of its produce in cream. The richness of the cream may also be estimated by the colour of the cream floating on the tubes. The best Alderney cream has a yellow hue, almost as deep as the flower of the buttercup, while the cream of a Holderness cow fed upon sour grains is as white as chalk, as the cream separates itself. Rich milk first becomes white, and then takes a bluish hue.

Every dairy woman knows that the first milkings of a cow are almost without cream, and that the last pint or half pint which is drawn from the udder with difficulty, is almost entirely cream, hence the necessity of filling the tube from the whole of the milk yielded by a cow; and it may not be an improper caution to stir it about with a spoon to mix the cream and milk more regularly together, before the tube is filled.

It is proper to observe, that the quantity of cream that floats upon the milk in Mr. Fane's glasses, cannot be obtained by the present imperfect method of setting milk in shallow vessels, and taking off the cream by skimming; the whole quantity may be gotten by setting the milk in deeper vessels, and drawing it from under the cream by a syphon; it is evident from this, that the present system of managing our dairies is capable of much improvement,

Your humble servant, &c. H. S.

Death of a beggar.

Died, in Glen-street, Kilmarnock, aged 87, William Stevenson. He was originally from Dunlop, and bred a mason; but during many of the latter years of his life wandered about as a common beggar. Thirty years ago, he and his wife separated upon the strange condition, that the first who proposed an agreement should forfeit 100*l*. This singular pair never met again, and it is not now known whether the heroine yet lives. Stevenson was much afflicted, during the last two years of his life, with the stone. As his disease increased,

he was fully aware of his approaching dissolution, and for this event made the following extraordinary preparation.—He sent for a baker, and ordered 12 dozen of burial cakes and a great profusion of sugar biscuit, together with a corresponding quantity of wine and spirituous liquors. He next sent for the joiner, and ordered a coffin to be prepared for him. The grave-digger was then sent for, and a spot fixed upon in the church-yard of Riccarton, for his interment. Having made these arrangements, he ordered the old woman that attended him, to go to a certain nook, and bring out 9*l*. to be appropriated to defray the funeral charges. He told her at the same time not to be grieved, for he had not forgotten her in his will. In a few hours afterwards, in the full exercise of his mental powers, but in the most excruciating agonies, he expired. A neighbour and a man of business were immediately sent for, to examine and seal up his effects. The first thing they found was a bag containing large silver pieces, such as crowns, half-crowns, and dollars, to a large amount; in a corner was secreted, amongst a vast quantity of musty rags, a great number of guineas and seven-shilling pieces. In his trunk was found a bond for 300*l*. and other bonds and securities to a very considerable amount. In all, the property amounted to 900*l*. His will was found among some old paper, leaving to his house keeper 20*l* and the rest of his property to be divided among his distant relations. As it required some time to give his relatives intimation of his death, and to make preparations for his funeral he lay in state four days, during which period the place where he was resembled more an Irish wake, than a deserted room where the Scots lock up their dead. The invitations to his funeral were most singular; persons were not asked individually, but whole families; so that except a few relatives dressed in black, his obsequies were attended by tradesmen in their working clothes, bare-footed boys and girls, an immense crowd of tattered beggars; to the aged among whom he left sixpence, and to the younger three-pence. After the interment, this motley group retired to a large barn, where a scene of profusion and inebriety was exhibited almost without a parallel.

Gent. Mag.

Emperor of China's advice to his ministers, &c.

The following translation from the Pekin Gazette furnishes us with a document of high authority respecting the moral character of the Chinese; and evidence to the veracity or error of European travellers on that point, not easily to be refuted.

Govern with truth and sincerity, and order will be the result; if not, then anarchy will ensue. To an individual, a family, even to the sovereign and the whole empire, nothing further is requisite than truth.

At this moment great degeneracy prevails; the magistrates are destitute of truth, and great numbers of the people are false and deceitful. The magistrates are remiss and inattentive; the people are all given up to visionary schemes and infernal arts. The link that binds together superiors and inferiors is broken. There is little of either conscience or a sense of shame. Not only do they neglect to obey the admonitions which I give them; but, even with respect to those traitorous banditti, who make the most horrible opposition to me; it affects not their minds in the least degree; they never give the subject a thought. It is indeed monstrously strange! That which weighs with them is their persons and families; the nation and government, they consider light as nothing.

He who sincerely serves his country, leaves the fragrance of a good name to a hundred ages; he who does not, leaves a name that stinks for tens of thousands of years.

The utmost limit of man's life, is not more than a hundred years. What hearts have those, who, being engaged in the service of their sovereign, but destitute of talent, yet choose to enjoy the sweets of office, and carelessly spend their days.

The means used by the sages, to perfect their virtue, is expressed in one word, "Sincerity." Sincerity! or, in other words, Truth and Uprightness. Let my servants (the officers of the Empire) examine themselves, whether or not they can be sincere; whether or not they can be upright; I fear they will give but a poor account.

The virtue of the common people, is like the waving grain, (it bends with

every wind that blows.) If superiors have little truth or sincerity in their hearts, the disorderly intentions of the people will certainly be numerous. Small in the beginning, and not affecting the mass of the people, they gradually increase, till at last the bludgeon is seized, and rebellion and anarchy ensue.

In ancient times, the heads of rebellion, styled themselves Wang and Te, Kings and Emperors;* but it was never heard in ancient times, that any assumed the name of San hwaug, (or the king of Heaven, the king of Earth, and the king of Men†). The hearts of the men of this age are daily degenerating.

As we are the superiors of this people, shall we bear not to exert our hearts and strength to the utmost—shall we not bend under the labour even to lassitude, if we may thereby save a ten thousandth part!

If in coming forward, or in retiring, the sole object be personal gain; does a man not lower himself thereby to the common mass; nay, sink low as the filth of the age. Think, what kind of men will future ages describe you! Will they not engrave infamy on your back!

For every portion of sincerity exerted by the officers of government, the nation receives a portion of felicity, and the people are spared a portion of misery. The prince and the people, alike depend on the officers of government. The happy state of things in the time of Tang and Yu,‡ was the result of the exertions of the officers of government.

Because of my moral defects, I met with the great convulsion which took place the last year. Day nor night can I banish it from my breast. My anxious and constant desire is, to bring things to a well governed state. How shall I dare to be remiss or inattentive to it? But my servants of late gradually forget the affair. When I call them into my presence, they say, "There is nothing wrong!"

O, alas!—The residue of the rebels, not yet taken! commotion excited by various reports! to sit down with repose is impracticable. Shall men still treat

* By this it would appear, that some person had recently assumed this title.

† Alluding to the fabulous ages of Chinese History.

‡ About the year of the world 1700

it with indifference, and allow themselves to say, "There is nothing wrong!" If this may be endured, what may not be endured!"

I speak with the utmost sincerity of heart, and call upon all the officers of my court to act with sincerity of heart, and sincerely fulfil the duty of good servants. Thus they will aid my sincere wishes, and accord with my sincere declarations.—If you are able to disregard this, and consider the words of your sovereign as of no importance, you are indeed, harder than the rocks. You are unfit to be spoken to; and the fault of speaking to those who are unfit to be spoken to, devolves on me. But, it will be impossible for you to escape being charged by the pen of the historian, as false and treacherous deceivers. The distinction betwixt a patriot and a traitor, is expressed by the two words, "True, False." In the morning and at night, lay your hands upon your hearts, and you will understand without the aid of words.

[Pekin Gazette. Kea-king, 19th Year, 10th Moon, 2nd Day.
November 13, 1814.] *Asiatic Jour.*

We copy the following singular advertisement from the Madras Gazette of November 16th. Our readers may smile at the credulity of the Nawaub, but we believe him to have been very sincere in the expectations held out by his notice.

"Notice. Nawaub Majood Al Dowlah Behauder begs to inform his friends and the public, that the Mohurruum Feast commences on Friday the 22d November instant, and will continue till the 30th of the said month of November; and Nawaub Majood Al Dowlah Behauder also begs to inform, that he will celebrate the said feast in the Mount Road, at a spacious upper roomed house, called Ubbausty Baug, at the corner of the road leading to the late Mr. Fallowfield's garden, and which will be very beautifully performed with abundance of lights, &c. The lighting, &c. will begin at seven every night, and end at three (3) in the next morning, with lights of every kind to amount of 50,000. The friends and public of every description who wish to come and see the same, no prevention will be made from the above said date to the end of November, in the Ubbausty Baug, or

place of worship. In the first entrance of the house a row of lights will be placed, and chairs, &c. will be put in a varandah facing the image; and also Nawaub Majood Al Dowlah Behauder trusts that gentlemen or ladies of any description will sit in the said varandah; there are railings put, and he trusts that no person will go within the same; and he further begs to inform that the same is a very devoted place, and if any person or persons make a supplication for any thing, such as for having issue, wealth, &c. and promising to make an offering at the said place, the deity will in the space of one year or six months comply with their request, for many persons of different description have supplicated many things which were complied with, and he further begs to state, that the same lighting, &c. will again be performed on the following days, viz. on the 2d December, 9th December, 19th December, 5th January, 1817, 6th January, 7th January, 8th January, 16th January, 17th January, 18th January." *ib.*

SIR.—I send for insertion in the Asiatic Journal an account of the dimensions of the great gun at Agra, as it is an object of universal admiration and has not yet been noticed in your work.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient humble servant.
20th Sept. 1817.

W. E.
Inches.

Diameter of the piece at the muzzle	62
Do. do. at the breach	36
Caliber	22 1-2
Diameter of the shot.	22
Length of the bore.	96
Do. piece.	114
Solidity of the piece . 62,494 cubic inches, weighing nearly . . .	23,435 lb.
French.	

The shot, if made of beat iron, would weigh nearly 1624 lb; if cast, in the proportion of 496 to 580.

Steel or forged iron weighs . . . 7.352
White marble do. 2.707

The gun weighs 334 factory maunds
ib.

Trial of a Life Boat.—A short time ago, lieutenant E. Thrackston, R.N. exhibited before a number of merchants and ship-owners of Bristol, the buoyant properties of his newly invented life

boat, which, we are happy to say, exceeded the most sanguine expectations he previously entertained. Its other peculiar qualities and advantages are to be tried in a few days in the King's road. The extreme length of the boat is 21 feet, beam, 6 feet 6 inches, and is rowed with ten oars, double backed. It is constructed with canvas, in lieu of plank, (which possesses an advantage over plank, wants no butt ends to be stowed in case of accident,) and has cork bilge floats, which may be applied as life buoys, to throw out in cases where men may be washed overboard from a deck, with a large fender round the boat, and which from its elasticity, is capable of repelling any violent concussion. Without having recourse to the precarious assistance of air tubes, Mr. Thrackston has succeeded in gaining so much on the water-line, that the boat, (by the introduction of eight valves) discharges herself down to thwart, a space of nine inches. She has a canvas cover, contrived in such a way as to possess the advantages of a deck, at the same time keeping the men dry, without being an incumbrance to their rowing. The keel is the last thing that goes on the boat, and is so contrived by the stem and stern posts working together with the elasticity of the timbers, which are sawn out of a straight piece of oak, and moulded into form by steam, that it is conceived impossible that the boat can ever be stove. She took on board 30 persons, when filled with water up to the valves, and had 28 standing on the gunwale, without the least danger of upsetting. Upon an emergency 60 persons might be stowed within her. She rows well and light on the oars when thus filled, and turns with great rapidity in her length. Boats may be built on a similar construction to any shape, and from the light, but very efficient materials of which they are composed, lieut. Thrackston is convinced, from the experiments which he has made, that, if generally adopted, they will be found fully to answer every common purpose of an appendage to a vessel, besides possessing the invaluable advantages of a life boat. *Lit. Pan.*

Account of the Order of Knights of Malta, or St. John of Jerusalem.

The usual title of these Knights of Malta, is of no older date than the

settlement of the island of Malta; their name, according to their institution, is Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. The design of the foundation was for the exercises of hospitality, and for the relief and assistance of the poor pilgrims who came from all parts of the world to visit the holy places. At first the order was composed of persons of mean rank or quality, living under a superior: this first superior was a man of the name of Gerard, a Frenchman by birth, who had built an hospital in the same place where it was pretended Zacharias used to perform his devotions, and dedicated it to St. John the Baptist. This Gerard, who might be reckoned the founder of the order, was a man of a very holy life, and devoted his time to performing the offices of hospitality, according to his profession. When Jerusalem was besieged by Godfrey of Bouillon, he carried bread every night to the Christian army; but being suspected, he was narrowly observed, and at length surprised in the very act. He was immediately seized, and carried before the governor with his burden of loaves, which, says the legend, were miraculously changed into stones as they were taken out of the bag; so that he was fully acquitted.

On the day the Knights are professed, they must brandish a sword thrice, as if it were in defiance of the enemies of Christ. Afterwards they take the vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience. The order is composed of four different classes; or rather there is only one, which tolerates the rest out of charity. The first is that of the Noble Knights, who before their admission must prove their nobility in the presence of certain commissioners who are sent to examine their pedigree upon the place. They wear a cross of gold enamelled, hanging at one of their button-holes. The second is the class of Priests, who, for the most part, are not noble, yet wear a cross as the first. The third is that of the Serving Knights, who are not noble, and only wear a cross of white satin sewed upon their garment, and of a different figure from that of the Nobles. The fourth and last is composed of the Grand Master's menial servants, or of some indigent persons to whom he grants that favour, and which brings them no advantage and but little emolument; their

cross is like that of the Serving Knights. Of all the four classes the first only can aspire to the dignities of the order, that is, to the title and office of Commanders, Grand Crosses, and Grand Master. The two first are given in order according to their seniority.

All the employments and offices of honour and profit are at the disposal of the Grand Master, who is obliged to choose one of the nobles.

The members of the second class serve at the altar, and are only capable of ecclesiastical preferment: thus they may obtain the offices of Vicars, Canons, and Grand Prior, which last is the highest dignity within the reach of their ambition.

The Serving Knights are incapable of being promoted to the dignity of a Grand Cross, or of enjoying a commandery by right of seniority; but they may possess commanderies of grace, which the Grand Master sometimes bestows on them, either as a particular mark of his kindness, or as a reward of valour.

As for the Grand Master's Knights, who compose the fourth class, they receive no other honour than the title of Knights of St. John. *La Belle Assem.*

Anecdote of Dr. Smollet.—When Dr. Tobias Smollet was a youth, he entangled himself in a foolish bet with a blustering gentleman, who vaunted he never had lost a wager, nor had been made an April fool in all his life. Mr. Smollet, provoked by this boast, and heated with wine, staked a larger sum than he could afford to pay, that before the expiration of three years, this wiseacre would at once become an April fool and lose a bet. The terms were accepted, and settled according to the rules on such occasions. When Mr. Smollet next day reflected upon the risk he incurred, he was very unhappy. This anxiety did not escape the notice of a lady his near relation, and being pressed by her kind solicitude, he intrusted to her his involvement. She lectured him on his temerity, but bade him not despond.—On the first of April this lady engaged her brother to invite eleven married couples, who, with himself and his wife, made twelve. She herself fixed with both the gentlemen to dine with her, and try to make each other April fools. The dinner

had been announced in the drawing-room before Mr. Smollet appeared: his cousin rated him for being so late. He said he had been detained by a person who tried to persuade him that her brother had ordered a great feast, and forgot to ask a *single* person to partake of it. The lady said her brother was sometimes absent, but could not possibly have committed a blunder so absurd. Mr. Smollet's antagonist was a person of great curiosity and credulity. He offered to go after dinner to ascertain how such a strange story could be invented.—There was not a *single* person, for all were married. Mr. Smollet won the bet, and gave the amount to a distressed family, as he could hardly think he had fairly gained an exemption from the forfeit. *ib.*

Anecdote of Marcel, the French Dancing-Master.—This famous disciple of Terpsichore obtained in his old age a pension from the French government. One of his young pupils, whose family had, by their great interest and credit at court, procured him this favour, hastened to Marcel, in order to have the pleasure of presenting him with his brevet, which she put into his hand, hoping to cause him an agreeable surprise. Marcel immediately dashed it on the floor. "Is it thus, mademoiselle," said he, "that I have taught you to present any thing? Pick up the paper, and give it me in a proper manner."—The young lady, cruelly humbled at the way this favour was received, when she expected so different a result, picked it up, with tears in her eyes, and offered it in the most graceful manner she was capable of.—"Very well, mademoiselle," said the old dancing-master, "very well: I will take it now, and I thank you, though your elbow was not quite rounded enough." *ib.*

Eccentric Character. (*From the Life of W. Hutton, F. A. S. S.*)—The greatest wonder I saw was Phebe Brown. She was five feet six inches in height, is about thirty, well proportioned, round face, and ruddy; has a dark penetrating eye, which, the moment it fixes upon your face, sees your character, and that with precision. Her step (pardon the Irishism) is more manly than a man's, and can cover forty miles a day. Her common dress is a man's hat, coat,

with a spenser over it, and men's shoes. She is unmarried.

She can lift one hundred weight in each hand, and carry fourteen score; can sew, knit, cook, and spin, but hates them all, and every accompaniment to the female character, that of modesty excepted. A gentleman at the New Bath had recently treated her rudely: "She had a good mind to have knocked him down." She assured me she never knew what fear was. She gives no affront, but offers to fight any man who gives her one. If she never has fought, perhaps it is owing to the insulter having been a coward, for the man of courage would disdain to offer an insult to a female.

Phebe has strong sense, an excellent judgment, says smart things, and supports an easy freedom in all companies. Her voice is more than masculine, it is deep toned. With the wind in her favour, she can send it a mile; she has neither beard nor prominence of breast; she undertakes any kind of manual labour, as holding the plough, driving a team, thatching the barn, using the flail, &c.; but her chief avocation is breaking horses, for which she charges a guinea a week each. She always rides without a saddle, is thought to be the best judge of a horse or cow in the country, and is frequently employed to purchase for others at the neighbouring fairs.

She is fond of Milton, Pope, and Shakespeare, also of music; is self-taught, and performs on several instruments, as the flute, violin, and harpsichord, and supports the bass viol in Mallock church. She is a marks-woman, and carries the gun on her shoulder. She eats no beef or pork, and but little mutton. Her chief food is milk, which is also her drink, discarding wine, ale, and spirits. *ib.*

Description of Mad. de Stael's funeral.

On Saturday, the 26th of July, the remains of Madame de Stael arrived at Coppet, in a hearse, followed by M. de Stael and M. de Schlegel. Monday, the 28th of July, was the day fixed for depositing the coffin in the mausoleum wherein M. and Madame Neckar are interred. It is a square monument of black marble, which stands in a kind of thick grove, walled in, and where Madame de Stael was frequently accustomed

ed to walk alone. Over the opening of the tomb is a work in *basso relievo*, the subject of which was given by Madame de Stael: that lady is there represented kneeling, weeping over the sarcophagus of her parents, who seem to be holding out their hands to her from heaven. The last wish of Madame de Stael was, that her ashes might rest with theirs. The members of the municipal corps at Coppet requested that they themselves might be the bearers of the coffin, and M. le Duc de Noailles came from Rolle to make the same request. Those who followed the corpse were very numerous: besides the friends and relations of Madame de Stael, several of the first families in Geneva and its environs joined the procession. People of every class, and of all ages, thronged in crowds to see the funeral pass by. The pastor of the parish, M. Barnard, pronounced in the castle of Coppet, after the burial, a religious discourse, extracted chiefly from the sermons of M. Neckar. An awful silence reigned amongst all the spectators during the procession of the funeral to the tomb.

After the funeral a charitable donation was given to the poor of the place, whom, during her life, Madame de Stael had constantly assisted and made happy. *ib.*

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Madame de Stael's Memoirs of the Private Life of her Father, are nearly ready for publication, in octavo, in French and English. *M. Mag.*

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Mr. Beauford, M.A. of Dublin, is preparing for the press, a New Theory of Magnetism, especially the phenomena which relate to the variation of the magnetic needle; deduced from observation, and demonstrated on true philosophical and mathematical principles. In the investigation, magnetism in general is ascribed to the effect of caloric on the globe of the earth. In magnetism, at least as far as it affects the needle, (the author says,) there are four magnetic poles near the terrestrial poles; which magnetic poles in each class have a rotation from east to west, proceeding from the effect of the perturbing powers of the sun and moon, in the difference between the centripetal and centrifugal forces. The revolution of the northern magnetic poles

round the earth's axis and poles is complete in 1073 years, and that of the southern in 864 years. The northern affirmative magnetic pole has this year (1817), at the time of the vernal equinox, lat. 71 deg. 24 min. N., lon. 83 deg. W.; the negative pole, lat. 82 deg. 12 min. N., lon. 114 deg. 19 min. E. The southern affirmative magnetic pole has lat. 65 deg. 56 min. S., lon. 156 deg. 58 min. E.; the negative, lat. 76 deg. 46 min. S., lon. 264 deg. 26 min. E. from Greenwich. And the places of the mean or operative pole derived from the effect of the four other poles, and to which the needle tends—northern lat. 73 deg. 36 min. N., lon. 84 deg. 54 min. W.; southern lat. 68 deg. 45 min. S., lon. 145 deg. 30 min. E. From the effects and places of these mean operative poles proceed the various phenomena of the magnetic needle: as the variation, dip, position, nutation, rotation, and secular variation. *ib.*

M. Levrat, a French chymist, has discovered that the seed of the yellow water flag of marshes, known to botanists by the name of *Iris pseudacerus*, when dried by heat and freed from the friable shell, which envelopes it, produces a beverage similar to coffee, but much superior in taste and flavour. *ib.*

A quantity of cocoa-nut oil has recently been introduced into this country from Ceylon. It may be very advantageously employed as a substitute for spermaceti oil, as it is considerably cheaper, burns with a clearer flame, and is free from smell or smoke. It will be found useful also in the manufacture of soap, candles, and the finer articles of perfumery; and is likely to become a source of great revenue in Ceylon, and of singular importance to this country. Soap made with it costs but ten per cent. more than tallow-soap. Shops which introduce this valuable article in town or country, may calculate on a monopoly of the oil, soap, or candle trade, as it will be universally preferred by good house-wives. *ib.*

Botany encouraged.—There seems to be a disposition among the public establishments on the continent to promote the study of Botany, by communicating to the public a knowledge of what

rarities they respectively possess. To this we may attribute the publication by M. de Schrank, director of the Botanic garden at Munich, of a work, the first fasciculus of which has appeared under the title of *Plantæ rariores Horti Academici Monacensis Fasc. I.* fol. The plates are lithographic, or stone printing, and coloured; they are executed by the *Lithographic Institution*.

To the same disposition we are to attribute the appearance of *Horti et Provincia Veronensis Plantæ novæ seu minus cognitæ quas descriptionibus et observationibus æcornavit Cyrus Pollini*. The plates are engraved at the expense of the Agricultural Society at Verona.

To these must be added the *Flora Napolitana ossia Descrizione &c.* containing a description of the indigenous plants in the kingdom of Naples, by Dr. Tenore, director of the garden of plants.

This work was begun under the command of Murat, *ci devant* king of Naples; and so far is to his credit. It is now continued, and is likely to be encouraged by public patronage, as the *Flora* of the kingdom. It is a superb and expensive work. *Lit. Pan.*

In one of the latter numbers of the Magazine of the society of Natural History at Berlin, is a table of thermometrical observations, made day by day, during the course of one hundred and fourteen years, collected by M. Gronau. This lapse of time implies the attention of succeeding generations; and marks the persevering disposition and accuracy of modern adepts in the sciences. Such registers must eventually furnish many curious and instructive facts. *ib.*

NUMBER OF KNOWN VEGETABLES—
The number of Plants yet known amounts, according to the calculation of Baron Von Humboldt, to 44,000, of which 6000 are agamous, that is, plants which have no sexual organs, such as champignons, lichens, &c. Of the remainder there are found

In Europe.	7,000
In the temperate regions of Asia	1,500
In Equinoxial Asia and the adjacent Islands.	4,500
In Africa.	3,000
In the temperate regions of America in both hemispheres	4,000
In Equinoxial America.	13,000

In New Holland and the is- } 4,000
lands of the Pacific Ocean. } 38,000
Gent. Mag.

—
The imperial Academy of Medicine and Surgery at Petersburg.—A simple school of Medicine was founded at Petersburg in 1706, and was successively improved, enlarged, and raised to the rank of an Academy. In 1808 this institution received a new organization; the number of the Professors' chairs was augmented, by the establishment of a chair for the Professor of the Veterinary Art, for one of Pharmacy and for a clinical Professor.

The course of instruction in this Academy, occupies four years, and is divided in the following manner:—

The first year, Mineralogy, Zoology, Philosophical Mathematics, Osteology, Syndesmology and Myology.

Second year, Chymistry, Anatomy, Physiology, Practical Anatomy, and Botany.

Third year, Pathology, Therapeia, Surgery, Pharmacology, and the art of Formulæ.

Fourth year, Practical Medicine Midwifery, disorders of pregnant and lying-in women, of children, Legal Medicine, and medical principles in aid of the public police.

All these courses are delivered in the Russian language, in halls purposely fitted for the attendance. The veterinary students are instructed in Zootomy, in comparative Physiology, in Pharmacology, in Pathology, in Therapeutics, in Dietetics, in the knowledge of studs, and in Epizootics. The students in Pharmacy frequent all the course of medical study, beside receiving particular instructions in Pharmacy.

The establishments attached to this Academy are,—

The *Library*, founded in 1756, and augmented from time to time by donations and purchases; so that it now forms a total of 16,282 works, in 25,642 volumes. Beside the works of physicians, ancient and modern, it contains many other scientific works and rare editions; and since 1815, all Russian works with their translations. This library also contains a collection of dried plants, from Russia, Siberia, the Ukraine, and foreign countries.

The *cabinet of Natural Philosophy*,

founded in 1795, and greatly enlarged by purchases made in England, and also in Russia—the instruments are arranged in classes—mathematical, philosophical, mechanical, astronomical. An observatory is attached to this cabinet.

The *cabinet of Mineralogy* comprises 4940 articles; mostly of Russian origin.

The *cabinet of Zoology* comprises 4899 numbers.

The *cabinet of Chymistry* and that of *Zootomy* are not yet arranged.

The *Botanic garden* is perfectly in order.

The *Anatomical cabinet* includes 1534 preparations, among which are 256 microscopic; with many drawings, models in plaster, wax, and an Egyptian mummy.

The *cabinet of Surgery* contains the greater part of instruments formerly used, as well as those of modern execution; with an extensive collection of bandages, artificial members, models of beds for the sick, &c.

The *cabinet of Pharmacy* is furnished with simple medicaments, and compounds prepared by the students.

The *cabinet of Midwifery* contains different instruments, osteological preparations, abortions, &c.

The *Clinical Institution* reckons thirty beds, and receives patients in every state and condition. The number of sick treated in this ward, amounts to 500 yearly,

The Academy also possesses a church, an infirmary for the students, and a pharmacy.

The general administration is under the immediate direction of the minister of public instruction. The number of scholars was originally fixed at 720; but, at present, the number is not more in the Academy at Petersburg than 350, and in that of Moscow 255. *ib.*

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Egyptian wheat.—M. Van Houverneer, mayor of Lede, in East Flanders, has tried the experiment of growing Egyptian corn: he has discovered that a single grain has produced 77 stalks (in general from 50 to 70) and that the ear of each stalk is six sided, each side containing from 14 to 15 grains, some even 16; the result of which is a single grain produces 6463.

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Whatever may have been the wis-

dom of that display of national pride which caused the failure of the late embassy to China, it seems likely to afford the literary world considerable gratification in the ensuing winter. Three considerable works have already been announced, and each of them appears to lay claim to public attention:—

The *first* is by Dr. Clarke Abel, physician and naturalist to the embassy, and is entitled, *Personal Observations made during the progress of the British embassy through China, and on its voyage to and from that country, in the years 1816 and 1817.* It will comprise the author's personal narrative of the most interesting events which befel the British embassy, from the time of its leaving England to its return; together with his remarks on the geology, natural history, and manners of the countries visited. It will be printed in quarto, and be illustrated by maps and other engravings, under the sanction of the Hon. East-India company, and be dedicated by permission to lord Amherst.

The *second* is by George Ellis, esq. one of the commissioners of the embassy, and will form a quarto volume, with an atlas of engravings.

And the *third* is by Capt. Basil Hall, of the *Lyra*, and will relate chiefly to the nautical concerns and discoveries, with new charts, &c. *Mon. Mag.*

Dr. Buchanan will immediately put to press, an account of the kingdom of Nepaul. This gentleman practised as a physician for several years in that country, during which time he was employed in collecting information relative to its natural, civil, and political condition. The value and accuracy, as well as vast extent, of Dr. Buchanan's researches concerning this part of India, are well known. *ib.*

Mr. Barlow, one of the mathematical teachers at Woolwich, will publish early in October, an *Essay on the Strength and Stress of Timber*, founded upon a course of experiments made at the Royal Military Academy. A new theory will be developed, founded upon the results of numerous experiments on a great variety of subjects, assisted by communications from several gentlemen of great scientific research. The work will include an

historical review of former theories and experiments, and be illustrated by numerous tables and plates. *ib.*

A Narrative is printing of Discoveries in Africa by Mr. Burkhardt. He has for some years been travelling in the countries south of Egypt, in the disguise of an Arab, and by the name of *Shekh Ibrahim*, under the auspices of the African Association. He is still, it is said, prosecuting his discoveries, and entertains sanguine hopes of being able to reach Tombuctoo, from the east, and proceed from that city to the western coast. This would perfect the geography of northern Africa. *ib.*

The Rev. C. Maturin, author of the tragedy of *Bertram*, is printing a tale, in three volumes. *ib.*

The Diary of John Evelyn, esq. printed from the original manuscripts in the library at Wotton, embracing the greatest portion of the life of the celebrated author of "*The Sylva*," and other works of celebrity, is nearly ready for publication. This extremely curious and valuable journal contains his observations and remarks on men, manners, the politics, literature, and science of his age, during his travels in France and Italy; his residence in England towards the latter part of the protectorate, and his connexion with the court of Charles II, and the two subsequent reigns: interspersed with a variety of anecdotes of the most celebrated persons of that period. The work will be enriched with original private letters from Sir Edward Nicholas, (secretary of state,) to king Charles I. with the king's answers, in his own hand-writing, now first given to the world. It will also contain selections from the correspondence of John Evelyn, and numerous letters from sir Edward Hyde, (lord Clarendon,) to sir Edward Nicholes and Richard Brown, during the exile of the British court. The whole work will, of course, be highly illustrative of the events of those times, and will afford many new facts to the historian and politician. The work will be comprised in two volumes, royal quarto, and will be embellished with several portraits, engraved by the best artists, partly from the most exquisite drawings of

celebrated masters, now in the possession of the Evelyn family; and with other interesting plates. We anticipate great pleasure from its perusal, and we doubt not that our readers in general will partake of our feelings.

ib.

The Memoirs of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, written by himself to a late period, and continued to the time of his death by his grandson, will appear on the first of November. It will form a volume in quarto, and be printed uniformly with the private correspondence.

ib.

Anecdote on Benserade.—Benserade once received a good caning for lampooning the Duke d'Epéron.—Some days after he appeared at court, but being still lame from the chastisement he had received, he was obliged to support himself on a cane. A wit, who knew what had happened, told it in a whisper to the Queen. Her majesty asked Benserade if he had the gout?—"Yes, madam," replied the satirist; "and therefore I use a cane." "Not so," interrupted the malignant Batur; "Benserade in this imitates those holy martyrs, who are always represented with the instrument which occasioned their sufferings."

La Belle Ass.

Royal Promotions.—The Sultan Osman having observed a gardener plant a cabbage with a certain dexterity and grace, it so attracted his imperial eye, that he shortly after rewarded this planter of cabbages by creating him *Beglerbeg*, or Viceroy of the Isle of Cyprus.

ib.

Mark Anthony gave the house of a Roman citizen to a cook. Louis XI, promoted a poor priest whom he found sleeping in the porch of a church, only that the proverb might be verified, that to lucky men good fortune will come even when they are asleep.

ib.

Henry VIII, raised a servant to considerable dignity because he had taken care to have a boar roasted whole, when his majesty took it in his head to wish to feed on one.

ib.

When Cardinal de Monte was made Pope, he bestowed a cardinal's hat on a servant for the great attention he paid to his monkey.

ib.

De Chamillart, the minister of France, owed his promotion to being able to beat Louis XIV, at billiards. He retired with a handsome pension after ruining the finances of his country.

ib.

French and English Translations.—

A Frenchman translating a passage from Swift, which mentioned that an officer had been *broke* by the duke of Marlborough, literally translated it *roue*—*broke alive upon a wheel!*

ib.

An English translator reading the phrase of *Dieu DEFEND l'adulterere*, construed it into the term of God *defends* adultery!

ib.

Literary Anecdote.—A young man from a remote province came to Paris with a play, which he considered as a masterpiece. M. l'Etoile cruelly criticised it, and showed the youthful bard a thousand glaring defects in his *chef d'œuvre*. The humbled author immediately burnt his tragedy, returned home, took to his chamber, and died of vexation and grief.

ib.

Cummyns, a celebrated Quaker, died of an anonymous letter in a public paper. "Which," said he, "fastened on my heart, and threw me into this slow fever."

ib.

Racine, who died of his extreme sensibility to a rebuke, confessed that the pain which one severe criticism inflicted, outweighed all the applause he could receive. As Israeli, from whom we have gleaned the above anecdotes, elegantly and feelingly remarks, "The feathered arrow of an epigram has sometimes been wet with the heart's blood of its victim."

ib.

Anecdote of Sir Walter Raleigh.

One morning when this illustrious character was deeply engaged, during his confinement in the Tower, in composing his *History of the World*, a disturbance, occasioned by a fray, took place in the court-yard, exactly below his window. Sir Walter was unable to see the occurrence, but he inquired of the first person who entered his room, what it was? The person gave him a full account, as he was an eye

witness to what had happened. Shortly after another friend dropped in, and the conversation turning on the recent fray, Sir Walter asked him if he had been present? To which he received an answer in the affirmative, followed by an account totally different from the preceding one. This narrator had scarcely gone out, when a third person entered; and he, having been also an eye witness, gave a recital no less different from the other two than they had differed from each other. No sooner was sir Walter alone than he began to meditate deeply on this circumstance. "Good God," said he to himself, "how is it possible I can pretend to arrive at any certainty respecting events which have taken place three thousand years ago, when I cannot obtain a correct account of what took place under my own window during the last three hours?" The impression, it seems, was so strong on his mind, that he threw the nearly finished manuscript of his ancient history into the fire. *B. Assem.*

This name was changed to that of Kutusow; and her companion was the Suwarow. The command of this expedition was given to captain Hagemester, the same officer as commanded the Neva, during the expedition under captain Krusenstern. We believe that we have mentioned this before; but not with these circumstances; and that intelligence has lately been received from these ships, *via* Kamschatka. *ib.*

France.—Among the new journals planned and instituted in France, is one that distinguishes itself by its address to those professions which use the learned languages:—*Hermes Romanus*, the Latin Mercury, by J. N. Barbier-Vemers. It is printed in 12mo.; and professes the intention of restoring the Latin of France to the just purity of the language. As we know his majesty Louis XVIII. to be an excellent Latin scholar, we pay more attention to his report on this work, than to most others that fall from the lips of sovereigns. It is affirmed that he should say to the author, "Your work is useful to the classical student, and agreeable to the friends of letters; continue to give us good latin; only those who are well grounded in latin, can well understand the French language." The remark may be applied to other languages beside the French.

Russia. New Voyage of discovery round the World.—A fourth expedition for visiting distant parts, sailed from the port of Cronstadt, September 9, 1816. The Russian American Company purchased for this purpose the American ship Hannibal, that on board of which general Moreau returned to Europe.

The following lines were never published in England, though several copies were printed and presented by the author to his friends. We are indebted to the politeness of a gentleman just arrived from England, for the manuscript copy, and for the above information, there can be no doubt of the genuineness of the piece, even if it were possible to disregard internal evidence. We recognize immediately the strong feeling that characterises Lord Byron's writings, and much of the poignant and well directed satire, that first rendered him celebrated. The allusions in this little production, are peculiarly happy, and we have again occasion to remark, that few poets who have written much, have so long sustained in this respect, the character of originality. There is something so generous, and high minded, in his attempt to call forth the shame of a certain personage, that we cannot avoid noticing it; unfortunately the only method, by which he could in any way avenge the wrongs of neglected merit, was to excite our sympathy by the gloomy picture he has drawn of expiring genius, and to rouse our indignation by exhibiting in its true colours, the "mockery of woe" that insulted the remains of Sheridan.

MONODY

On the Death of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Esquire.

BY GEORGE LORD BYRON.

Yes grief will have way—but the fast falling tear
Shall be mingled with deep execrations on those

Who could bask in that Spirit's meridian career,
 And yet leave it *thus lonely* and dark at its close.
 Whose vanity round him, flew only while fed
 By the odour his fame in its summer time gave
 Whose vanity now with quick scent for the dead,
 Reappears like a *Vampire* to feed at his grave!
 Oh! it sickens the heart to see blossoms so hollow;
 And spirits so mean, in the great and high born,
 To think what a long line of titles may follow
 The *relics of him* who died *friendless and lorn!*
 How proud they can press to the funeral array
 Of him whom they shunn'd in his sickness and sorrow,
 How *bailiffs* may seize his *last blanket* to day
 Whose *pall* shall be held up by *nobles* to morrow!
 And thou too, whose life a sick epicure's dream,
 Incoherent, and gross! still groser had pass'd,
 Were it not for that cordial and sweet cheering beam
 Which his friendship, and wit, o'er thy nothingness cast,
 No—not for the wealth of the land that supplies thee,
 With millions to heap upon foppery's shrine;
 No—not for the riches of all who despise thee,
 Tho' this would make Europe's whole opulence mine,—
 Would I suffer what e'en in the heart that thou hast,
 All mean as it is, must have consciously burned
 When the pittance which shame had wrung from thee at last,
 And which found all his wants at an end was returned:
 "Was this then the fate," (future sages will say,
 When *some* names shall live but in History's curse,
 When truth will be heard these Lords of a day,
 Be forgotten as fools, or remembered as worse)—
 "Was this then the fate of that high gifted man
 The pride of the palace, the bower, and the hall,
 The orator, dramatist, minstrel, who ran
 Through each mode of the lyre; and was master of all!
 Whose mind was an essence compounded with art,
 From the finest and best of all other mens' powers,
 Who ruled like a wizard the world of the heart,
 And could call up its sunshine or bring down its showers,
 Whose humour, as gay as the firefly's light
 Play'd round every object and shone as it play'd,
 Whose wit in the combat as gentle as bright
 Ne'er carried a heart stain away on its blade:
 Whose eloquence brightning whatever it tried
 Whether reason, or fancy, the gay or the grave,
 Was as rapid, as deep, and as brilliant a tide
 As ever bore freedom aloft on its wave."
 Yet—such was the man, and so wretched his fate,
 And thus, soon or later, shall all have to grieve,
 Who waste their morns dew in the beams of the great
 And expect 'twill return to refresh them at eve;
 In the wood of the north, there are insects that prey
 On the brains of the Elk till his very last sigh,
 Oh! genius! thy patrons more cruel than they
 First feed on thy brains, and then—leave thee to die!

Lines written by the late Right Honourable Richard Brinsley Sheridan.

The following lines have been handed to us by the gentleman to whose pen we are indebted for the biographical notice of the late Mr. Sheridan. They are interesting as an elegant effusion of that great man, written at a time when the army of invasion under Napoleon Bonaparte in 1804, was expected every tide, to make a descent upon the British shores, and may rival the strains of Turtæus, animating the Greeks to battle; for vigour of sentiment, ardent patriotism, and forcible appeal, calculated to rouse every energy of human action.

An Address to the British Volunteers spoken by Mr. Kemble at Drury-Lane Theatre.

IN Spartan bands to wake heroic fire,
Renown'd Turtæus strung his martial lyre;
Turtæus weak and lame, unskill'd to wield
The flying spear or grasp the pond'rous shield.
Nor by experience taught in just array,
To form the files or guide the doubtful fray,
Yet heaven inspir'd he knew beyond controul,
With strains sublime to rouse the torpid soul—
Swell with proud hopes the heart, and by his breath
Kindle the love of fame, the scorn of death.
And shall the British muse 'midst war's alarms,
In silence, rest nor call her son's to arms?
Shall Britons yield an unresisting prey,
And own a base usurper's foreign sway?
No—when you march to guard your sea-girt shore
Return victorious or return no more.
Greece, in her freedom's most propitious hour
Wag'd impious wars in quest of spoil or power;
And Rome, through many an age unjustly brave
Fought to oppress and conquer'd to enslave.
E'en the bright wreaths our Edwards, Henrys claim,
Crown'd not the cause of freedom but of fame;
While fond ambition, with misguided zeal,
Sought England's glory more than England's weal.
But when of old to chase a foreign host,
The painted guardians of our Albion's coast,
O'er her white cliffs descending from afar,
On Cesar's legions pour'd the tide of war—
When scythed chariots swept the ensanguin'd plain,
Then bards enraptur'd sung this patriot strain;
Ye generous youths who guard the British shore,
Return victorious or return no more.
Again Britannia sounds her just alarms,
Nor lures by interest, or ambition's charms,
But prompts to deeds which fairer trophies yield
Than graced in Agincourt's immortal field;
And bids you guard in free and gallant strife
All that adorns, improves, or sweetens life,
Your homes, by faithful love and friendship blest
Each pledge of love now smiling at the breast:
Your daughters fresh in bloom, mature in charms,
Doom'd, should he conquer, to the spoiler's arms:
Your sons, who hear the tyrant's threats with scorn,
The joys, the hopes of ages yet unborn,
All—all endear this just this sacred cause,
Your sovereign's throne, your freedom's faith and laws
Champions of Britain's cherish'd rights, ye stand,
Protect, preserve, avenge your native land,
For lo! she cries amidst the battle's roar,
Return victorious or return no more.

PART OF
BOSTON

CHARLESTOWN

set on fire when the Redoubt was stormed

BUNKER'S
HILL

Rebels

Road to Cambridge

Road to Cambridge

Road to Cambridge

REFERENCES

- AA** First position where the troops remained until the reinforcements arrived
- BB** Second Position
- CC** Ground on which the different Regiments marched to form the line
- DD** Direction in which the attack was made upon the Rebels's Breastworks
- EE** Position of part of the 17th and Marines to silence the fire of a Battery at E.
- F** First Position of the cannon
- G** Second Position of the cannon in advancing with the remainder of the troops by the Marsh
- H** Breast work raised at Pointe aux Sables by the pieces of cannon
- II** Light Infantry advancing along the shore to force the right of the Rebels work II
- KI** The Landing and Bunker's Hill close to shore to take the low ground before the troops advanced
- MM** Cannon then fired on the Rebels in light return
- N** Direction of cannon fire from the Rebels to the 17th and Marines
- OO** The Rebels behind all the time with their and batteries and their numbers uncertain having retreated, taking refuge in the woods and the distance
- P** Place from whence the cannon received orders from the
- Q** Place of the 17th Regiment on the night of the 17th
- RA** 17th Regiment in Charles Town on the night of the 17th
- S** Detachments in the Mill & Store Houses
- T** Breastwork thrown up by the remainder of the troops on the night of the 17th

Note The distance from Boston to Charles Town is about 10 miles over which a bridge has since been built

SKETCH OF THE ACTION ON THE HEIGHTS OF CHARLESTOWN

June 17th 1775, between his Majesty's Troops, under the command of Major GEN^l Howe and a large body of

AMERICAN REBELS

Copied by L. A. Chapman from an Original Sketch taken by Henry De Berniere of the 11th Regiment of Infantry now in the hands of J. Crist Esq

For lo! she cries amidst the battle's roar,
Return victorious or return no more.

E. H.
F.

THE ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

FEBRUARY, 1818.

ART. I.—*A Sketch of the Military and Political Power of Russia, in the year 1817.* Serpens nisi serpentem comederit—non sit Draco. New York: Kirk & Mercein. pp. 208.

THE dispensations of Providence are in no respect more remarkable than in furthering the progress of civilization, by elevating one nation as the means of suscitating and advancing others. The history of the world abounds with these examples, while reflection leads us irresistibly to discover in them evidences of beneficent design in the governing mind of an Universal Ruler.

From the earliest periods of the dawn of science, when Egypt was the sole depository of human acquisition, we trace the silent diffusion of its slender stores in those dark ages, as the certain precursor of advantages to man. The light of knowledge appears to have travelled with irregular, but progressive steps, and to have spread with the extension of conquest or alliance. So captive Greece poured out her treasures of art and refinement into the lap of victorious Rome.

Græcia capta ferum victorem cepit, et artes
Intulit agresti Latio—

But, without recurring to remote periods for the illustration of this truth, we may contemplate its influence over the ancient Sclavonic tribes, whose descendants now constitute the population of “all the Russias.” Long did their savage propensities denote a barbarian origin: their clans widely dispersed, and wandering in search of new pasturage for their flocks, roaming over the wildest deserts, and neglecting even the productive fisheries of the Volga and the Vistula. No cities, no villages, graced their extended plains. No uniform system of policy united, during five tedious centuries, their scattered hordes under one head. Science and letters were unknown. Superstition usurped the place of rational piety, and civil war diminished their numbers.

The humanizing arts have not yet performed their complete revolution. Asia, Africa, feel their power.—South America bor-

rows light from a proximate constellation, and extreme Siberia awaits its new intelligence, like the day spring from on high to visit it.

“Far as Angola’s sands and Zembla’s snows,”

we trace the beams of civilization, expanding from centre to circumference. In either Indies, the mind of man appears prepared to undergo a portentous change—the Mahommedan power totters before the march of the Cross.

Deeply as Russia is indebted to the genius of a Peter the Great—and little as it can be disputed that he did more for his country than ever monarch did before—we must ascribe the first impulse of its prosperity—the earliest symptoms of a destiny to emerge from obscurity to the refinements of civilized life—to the influence of foreign connexion before his time.* The germs of incipient civilization in Russia are to be dated from the first treaties with queen Elizabeth, with Edward VI, and James, of England—the establishment of a British factory under the Muscovite Company, and, subsequently, the settlement of German adventurers, French refugees, and ingenious emigrants of various denominations, throughout the provinces. Voltaire, in his *His-*

* To Ivan Vassiliewitch belongs the merit of first receiving new impressions of national improvement, with the foresight and candor suited to their importance. Accident drove a British ship into one of his ports, since called Archangel. She formed part of a squadron of four, sent from England in 1550, under the directions of Sebastian Cabot, to discover a north-east passage to China and the East Indies. A furious tempest carried her, after being separated from her companions, into the White sea and to the mouth of the Dwina. As she was the first vessel that had ever appeared in that quarter, information of the circumstance was communicated with all possible speed to the czar, then at Moscow. Her captain, Richard Chancellor, was invited to the capital, where he was most graciously and warmly received, with great magnificence and demonstrations of respect. Every encouragement was held out for the immediate establishment of commercial relations between the two countries, and the fortunate navigator was charged, on his return, with a letter from the czar to his sovereign, of the most munificent purport. Chancellor made a second voyage to Russia in 1555, with suitable instructions from his government, and obtained in favour of his countrymen a license, or formal patent, authorizing them to establish themselves, and carry on trade in any part of the Russian empire, with an exemption from taxes, duties, and imposts of whatever description.

The alacrity and liberality with which Ivan seconded this great behest of fortune, redound much to the credit of his discernment, and prove a singular enlargement of mind. He seems to have distinguished at once its unrivalled importance, not only with a view to the development and fructification of the natural resources of his country but to her advancement and civilization. The connexion to which it led, did indeed, much to animate her industry, benefit her agriculture, and unfold her capacity for naval skill. Ivan studied to improve to the utmost this new and auspicious alliance. He it was who first drew a number of artificers and artists, of every description, from England, and sent thither an ambassador, accompanied by twelve of his nobles. The English company of “Merchants’ Adventurers for the discovery of lands unknown,” obtained from him the exclusive privilege of transporting merchandise through his empire, by the Caspian into Great Buckara and Persia. By such measures did this sagacious and profound prince, even in that unfriendly period for the attainment of his wishes, aspire, in endeavour, to raise his people to a condition of excellence and felicity. *Walsh.*

tory of Peter the Great, would impress us with his magical descriptions that the czar had created a people and an empire. Hackluyt shows, that the materials with which Peter wrought his wonders were previously ready to his hand. The trade, the revenue, wealth, export, to which he succeeded, were generated by the growth of exterior relation, and the disseminated example of settlers. Unquestionably his personal travels through Europe, his practical study of the mechanical arts, his importation of foreigners into his empire, and encouragement to settlers of every description, contributed materially to call forth the capabilities of Russia, to instruct her mechanics, to stimulate her miners, reform her military, introduce new modes of policy, and teach the proprietors of the land to improve cultivation. He had wisdom to decide for himself, and, by a searching knowledge of men, an appreciation of the causes that lead to eminence in other states, and a devotion to the welfare of his own, he showed what monarchs can effect when they apply themselves earnestly to improve the opportunities of their station.

If, from this truly great man, we turn to his successor Paul, we must see reason to regret that among other legacies to his country, the great Peter had not bequeathed to it a liberal constitution. To curb the eccentricities of a frail descendant, happy had it been if some executive power, armed with experience and authority, had existed, to interfere between the impetuous sallies of his caprice and the concern of the realm. But autocracy unhappily debauched its supporters, whereby, if some good has attended, at least equal detriment has arisen to the interests of the empire. The universality of qualification necessary in one man will be rarely found existing in a degree to supply fully the public exigencies. The *magna charta* of Russian liberties will be the dawn of her greatness. Power must be delegated before it can become effectual. When we have seen travellers detained at Cronstadt in 1813, until their passports could be signed by the emperor, then in Germany, what must we think of the inconveniences of centering all authority in one individual, and imposing on a monarch the duties of a private secretary? If minor considerations such as these beset the mind of supreme power, what room can there be for other interests, weighty and pressing?

Is it to a negligence, of this origin, that we are to attribute the tardy expansion of native intellect? the necessity of a reliance chiefly on foreign sources to supply the common demands of navigation, medicine, engineering, and all the more useful attainments necessary to a nation? Foreign talent has indeed done much for Russia, and may, advantageously, do far more. Native capacity slumbered till it felt its vivifying power, and was long supposed incapable of successful effort. The chilling influence of climate was adduced to account for the undeniable fact of a dormant lethargy in genius and in thought. Common industry, too, seemed wanting, as, in the absence of encouragement was to be expected, so as to amount almost to an impossibility of subserving national advancement.

But the evil was rooted in the institutions of the country, and it was but doing imperfectly, when natives were not left unshackled to pursue the impulse of foreign example.

Models for imitation alone perhaps were wanting to rouse curiosity and direct interest to its natural pursuit. When afforded, Russian ingenuity was found to imitate closely, and to be equal to the most curious copy; but the contracted policy of the government, in confining its attention to St. Petersburg and Moscow, partially, precluded the general dissemination of improvement in rapid strides through the empire. French, German, English, Swiss engineers are extensively employed in the interior, and must continue to be supplied from abroad, till schools for instruction are opened to afford a knowledge of the necessary sciences. If predial servitude oppose this devotion to study, how can Russia hope to cultivate native talent, or aspire to rank among the enlightened of the earth? Does she seek to be a naval power, and neglect the reward of its native ornaments? When the Scottish admiral of the Russian fleet resigned his command at Lisbon on the rupture with Great Britain (of which he is a subject) because placed in the predicament of an officer fighting against his country, the loss of his services, if felt at all, must evince the necessity of a stricter cultivation of home experience and the development of indigenous skill.

That England views with solicitude the growth of maritime power in Russia, may be inferred from her negotiations with the Porte—her bounties, her persuasions to procure the close of the Dardanelles to the navigation of foreign powers, that forbidden pass, the key of which would be the grand palladium of Russian sovereignty in the Mediterranean.

The words even of Nelson himself, in 1800, betrayed his foresight and distrust of a new flag upon the ocean---a navy then rude as the boors with which it is manned, but which, if cherished with fostering care, and guided by experience, may one day dispute the empire of the seas. On a public occasion, soon after his return from Copenhagen, this great man, who certainly had his vices and his littlenesses, observed to a few by-standers, privately, but with his usual seaman-like *non-chalance*, "Those young Russians," said he, "the admiralty will have placed on board my ship, and circumstanced as we are with Russia, we admit them into the fleet, but when they have served their appointed time, and they come to me for a certificate, I take care how I recommend. To a stupid fellow, I give a *flaming certificate*."

When we consider the geographical situation of this empire—its commodious harbours in the Baltic and in the Black sea—its natural productions, furnishing every material for the construction and equipment of vessels, we cannot withhold a belief that, under a wise administration, it may soon exhibit a formidable marine. Its mines of iron and copper, its inexhaustible forests of timber, its pitch, turpentine, masts and spars, its staples of hemp and flax, confirm this assurance. Whilst other nations import their naval

stores, this exports to all, and has itself a superabundance. So dense are the forests, that the traveller drives through a region of one hundred miles, thickly wooded, the resource of ages! Since Poland is now incorporated with Russia, the importance of its products to commercial and naval purposes will begin to be felt. It produces ship timber in vast abundance, and of very great age, as appeared by the report of the master mast-maker at Toulon, who was sent purposely to examine the forests of that country. The salted provisions of the Ukraine are equal to those of Ireland, and from the low price of both cattle and salt, in Moldavia and the Crimea, they may be shipped at any of the ports on the Black sea one half cheaper than they can be procured on the spot in Ireland. Hemp, fur, sail cloth, saltpetre, tar, tallow, may be obtained in inexhaustible supply.

But what nation, not possessed of colonies or trade, those nurseries for seamen, ever attained to naval preponderance? Is this a policy overlooked or projecting? Have the voyages of Krusenstern and Hagemaster been directed to the establishment of commercial intercourse, to colonial settlement, as well as to discovery, their professed object? Have commercial advantages been secured from France?—a favoured participation in the trade to her reclaimed possessions, as the price of efforts to be contributed for their restoration to legitimate dominion? The boon, for a term of years, beside recompensing the expense of the armament, would be followed by incalculable advantage to the enterprise, the experience, the commercial habits of the Russian people, then, for the first time, introduced upon a new theatre of the globe. It is not the bare calculation of profit and loss in an adventure of this kind that should regulate the resolves of nations; but the prospective habits to be engendered by a new commercial intercourse—by an admission into channels that have aggrandized other powers—by frequenting the richest portion of the Antilles, another Asia in the west.

If we turn to the military power and resources of this empire, we shall find the genius of the government—the habits of the people—the political institutions, all favouring the profession of war. In a country where the army is the sole passport to distinction, where military rank is esteemed the occupation most becoming the employment of the nobility—where decoration and orders for the rewards of merit descend in gradation to every rank, acting as a constant excitement to good conduct, a less population might, in time, become truly formidable. But when Russia is viewed, levying her conscriptions over forty-two millions of subjects, from the Baltic to the Pacific, and from the White sea to the Caspian; all these, acknowledging the absolute will of one homaged autocrat to whom they swear fealty, how vast is the engine of power, how ready the means offensive and defensive at disposal, waiting on the nod of pleasure to execute its summons!

We pass over the events of a war in which the rashness of an opponent in quitting winter quarters on the Vistula, to carry his eagles into the midst of a Russian winter, furnished to Alexander

a victim and an ally—a victim sacrificed to the ambition of hastening his bulletins from the ancient palace of the czars—an ally, in the cooperating rigours of season. The gigantic resources of a hundred provinces poured forth their tributes to swell the army of the north—the Cossacks of the Ural mountains, from the Don to the Baschkir—Tartary itself, issued at the call of the beloved Hetman Platoff, and the cry of “To Poland and to Paris!” resounded from young to old, beyond the remotest Caucasus.

As partisans, the Cossacks are unmatched. The regular infantry and cavalry are highly disciplined. No soldiers in Europe display a nobler appearance. A military air—the step of grandeur and dignity, not the levity of foppery, mark the deportment of every member of the line. The officers are the sons or relatives of the nobility, possessing absolute command over their peasant slaves, whom they enlist. No discipline is spared, no severity of exercise omitted, to render the private a model of symmetry and grace in movement. The subalterns experience the same rigid drilling in their noviciate, and emulation of person and conduct incites the whole to prescribed uniformity. Lord Cathcart’s admiration of the Russian artillery, perhaps the finest in the world, did not go unnoticed in the *London Gazette*. The Russian is a being seemingly unacquainted, by nature, with the principle of fear: when ordered, he will march to the cannon’s mouth, as though unconscious of danger. Perhaps a superstitious persuasion of the joys of Paradise awaiting the departed souls of heroes slain in battle, may contribute to aid a temperament naturally phlegmatic, and not to be diverted from its purpose.

From Tooke we learn, that the Russian troops were pronounced, even by Frederic II, to be admirable soldiers. He observes: “The Russian will not fall back one step, while his commander bravely keeps his ground: he contents himself with a pay almost inconceivably small; and, with very slender diet, he is always cheerful. Hungry and thirsty, he traverses the heavy sands of the deserts, under the load of his accoutrements, without murmur or complaint; executes every command; reckons nothing impossible, or too difficult; does every thing that he is ordered, without shunning any danger; and is inventive of a thousand means for accomplishing his design. What may not be performed with such an army, when led on by experienced and valiant generals, in whom they have confidence? Let the soldier but see that he is spared as much as possible, he attaches himself with all his soul to his commander, and performs almost miracles. Well might the empress Catherine denominate the Russians an obedient, brave, intrepid, enterprising, and powerful people. In general, it may be affirmed that no army in Europe, proportionately, costs so little: and no soldier in Europe can subsist upon so little pay as the Russian. For what other European soldier will subsist on an annual pay not amounting to more than seven or eight roubles, or when in garrison only half that sum; and the allowance of grits and flour, weighed out to him with the utmost nicety.”

With such materials, Alexander may direct his vengeance and hurl his thunder into the remotest climes, dreaded by the potent, and flattered by the weak. His colossal power overshadows Europe—with one hand he grasps the north—with the other he challenges the south. The hordes of Tartary acknowledge his will, zealous to obey his call. Twice have they entered the capital of France, rejoicing to taste the delights of countries more prolific than their own. The east may next invite cupidity, and the achievements of Philip's son are perhaps to be redoubled under a modern Alexander. Catherine regarded the British empire in the east as her descendant now views it—the prize of future war. She did not hesitate to lend her sanction to a project—afterwards abandoned, from various motives—of marching an army through Buckara to Kashmir, and thence to Bengal, in order to drive the English from the Indian peninsula.

At this day, we find the count d'Yermoloff despatched on a mission to Persia, with a view to negotiate for the cession of the southern provinces on the Caspian, and the free communication of the Russians with the Indies through the Persian states. It is to direct a more ready attention to these objects that the court passes the present winter at Moscow, now risen from its ashes in renovated splendor.*

But to return to northern affairs: let us inquire into their present aspect, or what may be denominated secret history.

The press has so paramount an influence over public opinion, that all governments, and especially in this reading age, have thought it not undeserving attention. The Hamburgh Correspondent, the Brussels Oracle, the Frankfort Mercury, echo, from dubious, though not unsuspected quarters, the will of potentates.

* The fate of this magnificent, devoted city, is eloquently touched upon by an accomplished and learned traveller, A. Amos, Esq., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, in a letter, written in 1813, to the editor:

'Casting my eyes on the other side of this sheet, I perceive that I have not room for a description of Moscow. I shall only observe, that in viewing the ravages committed by the flames upon this ancient and once magnificent city, I felt a melancholy enjoyment analogous to that which I should experience if standing on the ruins of Carthage, or walking amidst the fallen columns of the Roman capitol. The stately edifices of the Kremlin, raised to gratify the vanity, to indulge the superstition, and to further the munificent designs of the czars of Russia, now present a pile of mournful ruins. Three successive explosions, which convulsed the whole city, levelled, in a few minutes, the work of years and the admiration of ages. I frequently look at the superb palaces of the nobility, of which, in many instances, the walls alone remain: I figure to myself where might have been the rooms dedicated to the hospitable banquet, the festive dance, or the enchantments of music. Mirth and happiness have now forsaken them. The only relics of the numerous wooden houses that have been burnt at Moscow are their stoves. Yet these seem to say, that they once afforded man solace from the inclemency of winter, and inspired his heart with cheerfulness, or merriment which naturally leads the traveller to inquire, what is now the condition of these miserable cottagers? A thought recurred frequently to my mind, when taking a general view of this impressing scene:

*'Pallida mors æquo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas
Regumque turres.'*

The former of these issues from the focus of information—the emporium of business and politics in Germany. Its ambiguous allusions to a certain great prince, betoken no friendly feelings towards his person, and the regent of Sweden must perceive that a higher bidder has purchased his denunciation. If he values his security, he will follow the example of the fifth Charles, and retire, whilst he may, into private life—happy, in having done all that wisdom could devise for the welfare of his adopted country.

Is the reign of legitimacy in Europe to be universally upheld? and are the sentiments supposed to originate in a German atmosphere, shrewdly edited to prepare us for the fate of another Murat? We all recollect before the press was dry announcing these forebodings, the news of unsuccessful conspiracy arrived to confirm their connexion, and portend that Stockholm is to see restored a family deposed for the calamity of its sire. *The son of Gustavus* is educating at the court of Stutgard---the king of Wirtemberg is his cousin. He is an accomplished young man, about 20 years of age, and of the *Protestant religion*. He is, besides, nephew of the emperor Alexander. The organization of Norway, successfully conducting under the present crown prince, will enhance the value of a disputed diadem. Charles XIII, aged and enfeebled by a continued course of early dissipation, cannot be expected to leave the right of succession much longer unsettled. Open force would speedily decide that question. The acquisition of Finland in the last war, has given to Russia the command of Sweden. But the intrigues of the diet, the bribery of the nobles, will render that the seeming effect of popular ebullition, which has its source in more hidden springs.

Since the attempt to assassinate the crown prince of Sweden, two of the Swedish *literati*, Dr. Bugellen, and professor Ira, have been sentenced to imprisonment; one for life, for having drank the health of Gustavus IV, as king of Sweden. The hopeful heir, connected by blood with the empress of Russia, and receiving his instruction under her auspices, is denominated, in some of the European calendars, as prince royal of Sweden: and if he should succeed to the throne, would be Gustavus V. After the death of the present king (now in his 70th year) it is not improbable that paramount authority will urge the claim of Gustavus to the throne. He is of age to reign, according to the usages of Europe. On the other hand, Bernadotte is acknowledged by Sweden, and most of the other powers of Europe, as prince royal of Sweden, and heir apparent to the crown. Having the chief command of the army, and, at the head of the councils of Sweden, he will, no doubt, adopt measures to be proclaimed king, and cause the oaths of allegiance to himself to be taken by all the people. He has already installed his son Oscar, now nearly 18 years old, as viceroy of Norway. When the peace of Europe is again disturbed, it probably will be on account of the affairs of Sweden.

There seems only wanting a Russian interest in Denmark, to complete that northern confederacy which might exercise the rights of ownership in the Baltic, and chase before it the disputants of the ocean. In Holland it would find ports to refit and equip, with fleets of reinforcement and cooperation. It was a capital stroke of policy to secure an alliance with that naval and commercial power, whose De Ruyters and Van Tromps once rode triumphant in the British channel, with a broom at their mast-heads, threatening to sweep the English from the seas, and whose glories may yet be revived, by the more expansive power of the incorporated Netherlands.

It was but part of a comprehensive series of matrimonial alliances, to connect the heir of Orange with a Russian czarina. The Dutch trade is intimately blended, as of old, with that of Archangel, Petersburg, Revel, and Riga. The hereditary prince of the Netherlands cannot but feel a mortification at the refusal experienced on his marriage offer to princess Charlotte of England, especially after the encouragement he had long received. Her acceptance of the hand of prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg, so immediately upon the rupture, could not but be mortifying to a youthful mind; and if it produced the resentment felt in private life, may not cease with the occasion that gave it birth. But was the all-powerful hand of Russia here, directing a change of affection in the present husband of the grand dutchess Catherine, sister of Alexander? If so, it argues the existence of a principle of action still more powerful.

Inspecting the history of family compacts, we shall find them springing from politic motives, imperceptible at times, yet the result of plan and object in ministerial arrangement. The marriage of the grand dutchess Anne to the king of Wirtemberg, extends Russian interest through Germany to the Rhine. The Wirtemberg troops, it should be recollected, furnished, under Bonaparte, one of the finest contingents to the Rhenish confederation. Alexander moreover, reckons as a brother-in-law, the hereditary duke of Saxe Weimar; and, by the recent union of a daughter of the king of Prussia with a Russian prince, the grand duke Nicholas, brother to the emperor, we may consider the connexion between the courts of Petersburg and Berlin as still more intimate and durable. The friendship of the two monarchs, whose feelings and whose interests, long since in unison, may be expected to be drawn still closer by this event, was formed under circumstances that ally mankind most warmly, because romantically to each other. Both had endured the most aggravated wrongs—both had sustained the oppression of a mutual enemy, and cooperated heartily for their deliverance. In the field, they had animated their joint forces by the inspiring energies of command and example; contending side by side—the first in the advance, the last in the return. In the tent, they shared the soldier's portion. In the day of triumph they joined in grateful orisons

to the Giver of Victory. A series of brilliant achievements completed the deliverance of Europe, and crowned them as its liberators. Paris received them as conquerors, and they spared it as friends. The magnanimity of Alexander disdained to retaliate ruined Moscow; for barbarism waits no longer upon Russian banners. Moderation in all ranks of the Prussian army evinced a discipline unrelaxed since the days of the great Frederick.

Whilst these events tended to unite the two sovereigns in views of public measures, their visit to England improved a connexion, the cordiality of which became daily more visible. Alexander, earnest to observe and note whatever might conduce to useful information and experience, seemed intent to discover objects fitting his imitation at home, and was every where accompanied by his gallant brother in arms.

The congress at Vienna saw them in fraternal concert; the one seconding motions for the annexation of Saxony to Prussia; the other, that of Poland to Russia. Alexander negotiated with the sword his share in the treaty; and pouring seventy thousand troops into Poland, under the grand duke Constantine, his brother, whom he nominated viceroy at Warsaw, insisted on its incorporation with his dominions. Talleyrand, acting on the old political maxims of France with regard to Russia, and unmindful of her present ascendancy, took an opposite stand. Lord Castlereagh, the British minister, hoping, by this, to restore the balance of power, warmly supported an opposition that served only to provoke the displeasure, without reducing the pretensions, of the autocrat, who now refused to admit his lordship into the imperial presence, and threatened, in case of refusal, to close the Baltic to the British trade. The acquisition of Saxony by Prussia, being waved till a more convenient season, smoothened the conferences, and apparently restoring the equilibrium, left to Prussia but a stronger claim upon the future services of its powerful auxiliary.

Monarchs, as other individuals, have their prejudices and propensities, which the officious are not slow to improve. Has a rooted antipathy to British interference sprung up from this offence of the minister of Great Britain? It will find abundant cour-tiers to fan the flame. Did Talleyrand imagine the extent of Russian power in modern days, when he withstood simply its encroachments, little supposing that loss of place and confidence was to pay the forfeit of his temerity? A Russian governor (the duc de Richelieu) who had emigrated from France at the revolution, was ready for office, and sent for to supply the vacancy. The error of Talleyrand was in borrowing his *politique* from the exploded memoirs of Vergennes, instead of drawing his conclusions from the temper of the times. France in the reign of Louis XIV is not a fit criterion for the statesman of 1814, inasmuch as she had not then felt the power of the czars. Her relative station is now altered, and it is to conciliate, far from thwarting, a successful adversary, that her politics should be framed. The times are past when stratagem could avail to circumvent the progress of

Russian power on the European stage. We discover in the *Politique de tous les Cabinets*, volume 3, how steadily and strenuously France laboured at Constantinople to baffle the projects of Russia, and oppose her power. There is unquestionable proof on record, that she not only instigated and supported most of the wars undertaken against them by the Turks, but frequently incited the Tartars to lay waste their territory.

The words of Bonaparte himself, in a conversation with the gentlemen of the late British embassy to China, quoted in our last number, are too remarkable to be passed over, since they confirm these views most unequivocally, and were noted with a precision more than usually accurate.

‘Russia is the power now to be most apprehended. If she organize Poland, she will be invincible. She always had a longing after Turkey, but I always stood in her way in that quarter.’

The cabinet of Louis the Fifteenth acted upon a systematic plan of hostile intrigue, and tampered habitually with every state capable of traversing and weakening the new member of the European commonwealth. *Arrêter le développement de la Russie*, to arrest the development of Russia, was one of the favourite projects of the duc de Choiseul. When Catherine’s fleet was about to pass into the Mediterranean to attack the Turks in the Archipelago, this minister framed a scheme for sinking it, in conjunction with Spain, although neither France nor Spain was then at war with Russia. Poland was the constant scene of the most dangerous machinations, as may be learnt from the correspondence of the count de Broglie, and other French agents near the court of Warsaw. To form there a *point d’appui* against Russia, was a leading object in the personal politics of Louis the Fifteenth, as well as of Bonaparte. The same end was proposed in the elevation of the prince of Conti to the Polish throne, for which the one laboured, and in the erection by the other of the kingdom of Westphalia, and the dutchy of Warsaw.

Talleyrand had borne a principal share in the arrangements of his late master; consulting, in his view, the supposed advantage of France; he was unwilling to relinquish the prescribed policy of ages—a policy, however, the extent of which was entirely appreciated, because its effects had been experienced, by the Russian interest. If proof were wanting of the decided influence of Alexander in the councils of St. Cloud, and of opportunity improved to obtain an ascendancy in the cabinet, it is most decidedly manifested in the removal of Talleyrand from office, and the introduction of the duc de Richelieu as prime minister of Louis XVIII. This nobleman, descended from an ancient distinguished family in France, was invited, at the period of his emigration with the flying nobility, in 1792, to fix his residence in the south of Russia. He was calculated to take the lead among his expatriated countrymen, who, realizing a new France upon the Euxine, peopled Astracan, and gave to the Crimea a new and ingenious race. Odessa grew beneath his fostering care, a splendid evidence of

his wisdom and his labours. During the latter years of his government in that city, he saw a thousand vessels annually frequenting it, the credit of which belongs to the master mind that unfolded the resources of Odessa as a granary for Europe.

Such is the minister now at the head of the councils of France—such the preponderance of power that placed him there.

Whoever would speculate on politics, the more clear his discernment, must be the better sensible that he sees at most but “through a glass darkly.” Experience oftentimes is baffled in attempting to reason upon the future from the past—in nothing, perhaps, so commonly as in the affairs of empires. It is in this view that we are disposed to esteem more lightly speculative opinion, coming from whatever source. It is not to be supposed that the volume before us could emanate from any quarter marked by official accuracy. It appears calculated to alarm Europe by arraying the phalanx of its dangers. Rumour has attributed it to sir Robert Wilson; it is not avowed what share he had in the performance. Great as his authority may be, in the facts he might have furnished, the mind can scarcely repose with entire reliance upon conjectural prospects, unsanctioned as they are by superior authority and declared views.

The Holy Alliance, first proposed and circulated by the pious sovereign whose sanguine mind recommends Divine precept to the observance of nations, may be regarded as assuring peace and justice to all. It allies, no doubt, the powerful and the good, in opposition to the ambitious and evil-minded. Still, it must be acknowledged that, as a test of morals, so variously construed, there is left open in this a wide range for conjecture. Is the object, more especially, to league against the Crescent the true religion of the Cross? To substitute by some new crusade the Gospel for the Koran? The union of Christian princes and the profession of Christian faith, as the basis of that union, favour the supposition; and on this ground, the hesitation of the British regent to accede to the treaty may be accounted for—the balance of power might ultimately be affected.

A frank avowal of political reflection is hazarded under the only free government in the world, unawed by apprehension of persecuting power, modern penalties of law, or the *surveillance* of censors of the press. “The greater truth, the greater libel,” is a maxim of European codes. The prosecution of the traveller Wraxall by count Woronzow, not faint in our recollection, may deter the modern annalist of another hemisphere. With such warnings suspended *in terrorem* over him, we could not expect an unreserved publication from any writer in England, particularly since the suspension of his liberties with that of the Habeas Corpus act. It is on this account we have chosen to disregard, in our views of this question, the anonymous authority of one who, cited to appear, is deterred, on pain of ruin perhaps, from deposing “the whole truth.” To claim an attentive hearing however is privilege in every court, and though there is much of irrelevancy to dispose

of, we will admit some facts, and what conclusions we may, from the author's situation to disclose.

'Alexander came to the throne with strong predilections in his favour. Real personal good qualities had gained the affections of all who approached him; and, as the pupil of La Harpe, expectation was raised high as to his capacity for government. The Telemachus of the north was not then inebriated with power, but, instructed in his duties by a Mentor endowed with intelligence and virtue, exercised the authority of a despotic sovereign to establish philanthropy as the basis of his throne.'

'An enemy to the costly indulgences of some of his predecessors, he regulated the expenses of his palaces with economy, and applied his treasures to the foundation of useful establishments, the promotion of public works, the equipment of his arsenals, and the augmentation of his army. Temperate, active, and indefatigable, he transacted the business of government through direct correspondence or personal superintendence; and familiar with the statistics, topography, and interests of the various people inhabiting his extensive empire, he cherished the general prosperity by a policy adapted to the wants of *each* and *all*.'

Speaking of his conduct on the march through Germany, when following up the French army, it is stated, that he was constantly at the head of his troops, and forgot no occasion for their instruction. But his attention was not limited to military discipline. Objects beneficial to Russia were his constant research. Every artist, every manufacturer, every mechanic who presented himself, with powers of utility, was immediately engaged; and persons were constantly employed to discover *men* and *things* worthy his notice.

Though not the nominal *commander in chief* of the armies, he exercised great influence, and received the principal homage of the Germans; to which the popularity of his manners greatly contributed.

Gratified in his vanities, but not intoxicated with his successes, he sought after, and acquired by his policy and mildness, the affections of all parties. To the *royalists* he was the guardian of the *royal dynasty*—to the *Napoleonists* he was the preserver of the integrity of France, and to the *constitutionalists* he was the *champion* of a *liberal government*. But in this moment of triumph he never forgot Russia, and added largely to former importations for the advancement of the arts, science, and industry in that country.

His 120,000 men encamped at Virtù astonished the staff of the other armies of Europe assembled at the review, by an uniformity of excellence, never before witnessed in such a large body of troops. Each battalion seemed a chosen one, and yet there was no preference. All were *pares et similes*.

Alexander commenced his reign in the year 1800, over thirty six millions of subjects, but his armies were not then numerous enough for his extensive possessions and the increasing military force of the several great states of Europe. His military system wanted that organization which was but imperfect in any one branch of government. The acquisitions of his predecessors had

been enormous: but they had not yet completed the line of frontier which the acquisitions themselves required for their preservation.

The guns of the Swedes could be heard in Petersburg: the Poles of Warsaw were *suspicious* neighbours: the Turks in Asia were still inclined to struggle for the recovery of the Crimea, from which they were not a stone's throw: the Turks in Europe still occupied Bessarabia, and held the Russians in check on the Dniester.

The mountains of the Caucasus were full of hostile Turks, and Persia, by the possession of the province of Shervan, presented a salient and offensive frontier, from which it fed a war that cost the Russians annually great sums of money; and caused much waste of life. The finances were deranged, and the administration of government, in the different provinces was expensive, without being productive.

To what extent Alexander has accomplished all his undertakings, without forgetting the interests he was bound to protect, may be difficult to prove, since there is no direct mode to ascertain the opinion of his subjects by the discussion of a *free press*; but as far as the prevalence of tranquillity in every province under his sway—as far as ostensible improvement in all military economy, and general order in all branches of the administration—can authorize the presumption, an extraordinary amelioration must have taken place.

Bodies of recruits, of which three-fifths used to perish in the journey, now arrive with no more than common casualties; and so far from the spirit of the people being worn down by demands for military service and augmentation of taxes; patriotism has acquired devotional ardour, and the state has not found it necessary to enforce any additional burdens upon its inhabitants.

The ground on which the town of Odessa now stands did not contain, in the year 1794, one house or inhabitant: now there are one thousand houses of stone, and above forty thousand residents.

Tcherkaz, near the mouth of the Don, in the sea of Azof, is no less prosperous.

Astrachan, at the mouth of the Volga, by the last treaty with Persia, (which gives the exclusive navigation of the Caspian sea to the Russian flag,) has obtained equal advantages.

The *internal navigation* from the White and Baltic to the Caspian and Black seas has been improved by various great works, and others are in progress.

'The city of Petersburg has been embellished at the expense of *five millions of roubles annually*; so that three-fourths of the houses are now *palaces of stone*, and the city itself has become the most magnificent in the world, for its buildings, its quays, its canals, and "the pellucid waters" of the Neva.

'The impulse has not been confined to the European provinces; but Siberia, to which such terrible images have been attached, from the supposed intolerable rigour of its climate, and its associating ideas of misery and unjust suffering, is become a *fertilized and productive coun-*

try, inhabited by *voluntary* settlers—amongst them many foreigners; and not only the city of Tobolsk, enriched by every species of European and Asiatic luxury, is growing into a very considerable capital, distributing civilization around—but Irkoutska also, at the distance of *three thousand seven hundred and seventy-four* miles from Moscow, and not *four hundred* from the frontier of China, has become the seat of a considerable and flourishing government.

‘ Communications are open in all directions, even to Kamtschatska and the fort St. Peter and St. Paul, at the distance, (by Okotsk, in the Pacific,) of *eight thousand seven hundred and thirty* miles from Moscow.*

‘ Reports are regularly received from every government, and arrive generally at the prescribed day, and from most of them at the same hour.

‘ In no country in the world is *travelling* so cheap, or so secure against robbers; and within the last half dozen years, large inns have been erecting, under the order of the emperor, at all the principal European post stations.

‘ *Manufactories* of all descriptions have been established, and particularly in *iron*, which is worked with a delicacy that rivals the artists of any country.

‘ Carriages, which heretofore were imported from England, are now made under the original instruction of German and English builders, with such good and cheap materials, as to render the prohibition of importation a matter of no regret.

‘ *Cloth* manufactories are receiving great encouragement from the government, and the late events on the continent have added largely to the *manufacturing* and *mechanic* population.

‘ The ports of Cronstadt, of Riga, and Revel, have not only been opened again to the trade with all Europe, but America is becoming a competitor of such importance as to render Russia no longer dependent on the English market: and thus the preference promised the English merchants by Peter the Great, when he addressed William the Third in Holland, in the year 1697, and privileges subsequently granted, have been cancelled, or rather not renewed, on an alleged principle of general justice.

‘ At the same time, the doctrines inculcated by La Harpe have not been neglected in *Russia*. *Slavery* has not only been divested of many of its most disgusting features; but great progress has been made towards its abolition by the regulations as well as the example of the emperor.

‘ The nobles of Esthonia have lately declared, that, at the expiration of a few years, necessary for intermediate arrangements, useful to the peasant as well as the proprietor, slavery shall no longer exist in their province; and there is every reason to expect a more general extension of this policy will not be long protracted.

‘ A disposition, manifested by the emperor, to introduce preliminary measures for the establishment of a *constitutional* government, was rejected by the senate, who declared for the maintenance of an *autocracy*. But if the *senate* at that time had been as liberally disposed as the so-

* It must not be forgotten, that the communications are greatly facilitated by the sledge conveyance. Merchandise can be transported on sledges in one winter, which would require two summers water carriage. The journey from Okotsk is performed in less than three months.

vereign, the frame of a representative government might have been formed, to keep pace with the progress of civilization.

‘While such are the characteristics of internal improvement, the indications of external greatness, in her foreign relations, are no less unequivocal.’

Russia has descended from the mountains! She is no longer struggling against the hostility of nature and barbarians; she has advanced into the plain. Persia is humbled before her, with armies it is true, instructed by Europeans, French officers, officers of the army of Napoleon *proscribed* by Louis; but it is not probable that they have carried with them feelings of ill will to Russia so strong as those towards England; that they would rather storm the frozen Caucasus than join in an expedition to share the spoil of Asia, and avenge in the east their humiliation in Europe.

To reach Tcheran, the capital of the Shah, the columns have to march only three hundred miles; and by the navigation of the Caspian they can be disembarked within *one hundred!* Thus an army might sail from the Baltic through an internal navigation from Petersburg to Astracan, and landing on the southern shore of the Caspian, pitch their tents within four hundred miles of the Persian Gulf; from whence the voyage to Bombay is only from twenty-four to thirty days, and to Madras but eight or ten days longer.

‘Russia, after posting *thirty thousand* men of appropriate force, with artillery, &c. in Finland, *eighty thousand* on the frontier of Galicia, *sixty thousand* in Moldavia, *thirty thousand* on the frontier of Armenia, as many in Persia, and leaving a reserve of *one hundred thousand* men to sustain these armies, possesses still a disposable force of about *two hundred thousand* infantry, *eighty thousand* cavalry, and *one thousand two hundred* guns better horsed for service than any artillery or cavalry in the world;*—an army, than which, there is none more brave, and with which *no other* can march, starve, or suffer physical privations and natural inclemencies. She has moreover a population equal to the needed supply, and to a great proportion of whom the habits and sufferings of war are familiar; while no power in Europe can raise, equip or maintain their forces with such disdain of the price of blood.†

‘Such is *Russia*—such has been her gigantic growth within a short century! The elements of her greatness, no doubt, previously existed, but, like the treasures in the bowels of the earth, they were undiscovered, and, when produced, were still too full of dross for use, without skilful preparation.

‘Ability and audacity have guided the engine: fortune, and the errors of enemies, have contributed to its action.’

The work under notice is the production of a superior mind, stored with more ancient knowledge and classical reading than usually unite in a general of cavalry. With some political foresight, it affords statistical information accessible perhaps only to those who have travelled and inquired in Russia. For this part of

* The militia would perform the garrison duties, if all the regular troops were required on emergency in the field. Her *defensive* means, indeed, are so great and various, as to be incalculable.

† The actual pay of a *Russian* soldier is not above half a crown a month.

the contents we feel more real respect than for any other. Facts will survive when the ardour of speculation is forgotten. The style is that of an energetic and luminous mind—brilliant and forcible. Passing over some unconnected reflections on past campaigns, there is still much informed, as well as much omitted.

The friend to human civilization and happiness will view with interest the expansion of order, art, improved government, and true religion, over dark regions; while he deprecates the position that advances of dominion should be regarded as objects of jealousy. The adjustment of power may perplex European statesmen—intrigue may busy itself to devise checks to encroachment, and barriers to ambition. The true philosopher will consider all as subservient to some superior design—the moral advancement of the world. So long as potentates war not against this universal law, protection, more than human, may favour their proceedings.

Russia, if sensible of her advantages, far from being impaired by suffering, may derive a benefit from her late misfortunes. The choicest treasures of science and of art have been unfolded to her view; the improved practices of enlightened nations have been exhibited to her imitation—it remains to profit by these, and to deduce a wisdom from experience.

Alexander must have witnessed the influence of learning and good impressions on a people; he must have admired the value of institutions resulting from a freedom of person and property—a liberty to search, and encouragement to propagate truth.

By contrast, and mature reflection on what propels or retards the progress of nations, he will discover much to reform, reverse and enact.

The freedom of the press he will be told, if his advisers are honest, is the first step to public improvement. But, of all the measures that can engage his deepest interest in this time of peace is, a close attention to the diffusion of knowledge—the great business of education among his people.

The days are gone by, when, to stifle rising merit, to quench the fire of genius, and to darken the understanding, were supposed to constitute the secret of governing mankind.

If, indeed, we turn to modern priestcraft, and search the denunciations of an inquisition sitting in judgment to sentence mental illumination without the cloister, we may trace the impious relics of deformed barbarism, appalling its victims with mysterious horrors, and teaching deluded fanaticism, “Since ignorance is best, ’tis folly to be wise.”

But the enlightened disciple of genius,* fresh from the glowing and generous lessons of wisdom, had studied books and men to little purpose, if, for a moment, he had listened to evil persuasion counselling in his ear the ways of darkness, as opposed to the light of instruction, with the spread of the Scriptures *in the vernacular tongue*. Error cannot stand the test of inquiry. Prejudice disappears before the broad day of intelligence and reason.’

* Any praise of ours is too feeble for the merits of M. La Harpe.

Schools for all*—Bible societies *have been* sanctioned and promoted in every province. Thankfulness we know to have been expressed for these inestimable peace-offerings, proceeding no doubt from the just conviction that crime diminishes, to make way for virtue, when the mind is instructed, and the heart amended.

If such continue the persuasions of his maturer years—in the intervals of business or pleasure, he will not rest content with general edicts for bettering the condition of his people. He will examine personally into their actual state, sufferings and wants, recollecting on the one hand the fair claims of the subject, and on the other the implied obligations of the crown. He will repose his confidence in a few, and those tried and incorruptible servants. He will deter abuse by vigilance in its detection. He will redress complaint, not by inviting its approach, but by searching its existence. As he values the good opinion of foreign powers—as he respects himself, he will select faithful representatives of his own character and conduct in the persons of his ambassadors—men, qualified to convey to distant nations the most favourable impressions of his administration; rigid in their observance of the laws, a regard to the opinions of society; dignified, respectable by their attainments and wisdom comporting with the just interests of a mighty empire.

The time may come when, called upon to unsheath the sword, the eyes of the world are to mark if in conquest he be guided by a beneficent policy—humbling the proud infidel, while he spares the oppressed, “*parcere subjectis et debellare superbos.*” Revolving years may afford to the poet and the historian memorials for his glory or dispraise.

— veniet lustris labentibus ætas,
Quum domus Assaraci Phthiam clarasque Mycenæ,
Servitio premet, ac victis dominabitur Argis,
Nascetur pulchrâ Trojanus origine Cæsar,
Imperium oceano, famam qui terminet astris.
Hunc tu olim cœlo, spoliis Orientis onustum,
Accipies securâ: vocabitur hic quoque votis.
Aspera tum positis mitescent sæcula bellis,
Cana Fides, et Vesta, Remo cum fratre Quirinus,
Jura dabunt: diræ ferro et compagibus arctis
Claudentur belli portæ.

A pacific policy will secure to him the approbation of the good, while it the more justifies him in a war provoked.

Pursuing these general maxims as the guide of his administration, he will acquire the grateful attachment of a people, between whom and his immediate cares no minister will dare to interpose—he will enhance his respect abroad, by being careful to establish it at home, and, far from exciting the suspicions or jealousies of men, he will be regarded now and hereafter, the friend, the protector of public virtue and happiness—the benefactor of the human race.

* The system of Bell and Lancaster. In Europe, Denmark, Iceland, Finland, *Russia*, Germany, Switzerland and France, there have been added the following Corresponding Societies—at Basle, Berlin, Lithuania, Ratisbon, Zurich—the cause prospers in Greece, and *even among the Calmuck Tartars.*—*Ninth Report of the British and Foreign Bible Society.*

ART. II.—*Reports of Cases adjudged in the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, with some select cases at Nisi Prius and in the Circuit Courts.* By the honourable Jasper Yeates, one of the judges of the supreme court of Pennsylvania. 8vo. Bioren. Philadelphia, 1817.

THE late judge Yeates, during a juridical life of twenty-six years, was distinguished by a patience of labour and investigation, remarkable even in a profession that constantly calls for it. He was a man of extensive law reading, of sound judgment, of a minute and accurate acquaintance with the legal history of his own state, and of industry to bring all these resources into daily use. Those who knew him intimately, know with what ardour he performed his official duties to almost the last hour of his life, and in how small a degree the acutest bodily suffering, was permitted by him to disturb the exercise of his functions, or the serenity of his excellent temper.

But above all was he distinguished and worthy of distinction, for his uniform and unshaken regard to precedent, to the decisions of his predecessors, to the law as he understood it to be adjudged and settled, which no vanity of striking out new opinions, could ever induce him to give up. This most wholesome disposition, which is not in greater harmony with the duties of a judge than it is with the interests of society, is by some regarded with indifference, and by others with contempt, as the attendant of a mind unable to stand or go by itself; but when we advert to the nature of our complicated system of law, and the constant reference which the actions of men have to it, it is impossible to deny that the most splendid qualities in a judge afford no compensation for either his ignorance or his defiance of authority. Admirable as our common law is, it must be admitted that some of its rules, and those of very frequent application, are in the highest degree artificial; that is, no good reason can be given why they might not have been in the beginning very different from what they are. The authority of such rules is matter of positive establishment, and not of reason. In many cases, where the rule is not so entirely positive, but claims to be a deduction from some acknowledged principle of right, the last conclusion is so distant from the original principle, that it is difficult to discern their connexion, and it would be no offence to sound reasoning, nor indeed to the parent principle itself, to adopt a conclusion entirely opposite to that which has been adopted. In other cases, though certainly few in number, the rule seems in early times to have been turned out of the path of reason, perhaps by the impulse of that maker of bad precedents a hard case, and has never been able to get back to it.—In each of these classes instances will readily occur to the professional reader; and it is in reference to rules of this description, long since perfectly settled, that men buy, and sell, and bequeath, make provision for themselves, their dependents, and their posterity. What more pestilent influence then can arise in society, than a legislating judge, who, from vanity or ignorance, sets up his private opinion above

the settled law of the land, and because he is unable to discover the reason of a rule, or thinks he is able to make a rule more reasonable, tramples under foot what is sanctioned by the consent of ages. Under such licentiousness every thing becomes uncertain. *Non omnium quæ à majoribus nostris constituta sunt, ratio reddi potest. Et ideo rationes eorum quæ constituuntur: alioquin multa ex his quæ certa sunt, subvertuntur.*

It is the good fortune of Pennsylvania, that her supreme bench is now filled by judges, all of whom are above the aim and reach of this reproach; and it is the high praise of judge Yeates, that he habitually lived above it. He implicitly followed the *majorum vestigia*; and no one can go wrong who treads in the steps of the great men that have adorned the common law of England.

One fruit of his industry, and of his love of certainty in the administration of the law, we see in the Reports before us: a collection made for his own guidance, and which are now given to the press by his legatee, Mr. Smith. They contain, in regular series, all the decisions of the supreme court, from the time he was called to that bench in 1791, until the commencement of Mr. Binney's Reports, together with several cases decided at *Nisi Prius*, and in the circuit courts some time since abolished: and according to the estimate of the publisher, will probably occupy three volumes.

The accuracy of all the cases in point of statement is unquestionable, and they are reported with great perspicuity. If the authority of any of them may be doubted, it can only be of a very few decided at *Nisi Prius*. Those decided in bank, the great body of the Reports, are supported by their intrinsic merit, as well as by the names of the two chief justices, M'Kean and Shippen, and of judge Yeates himself. Of chief justice M'Kean, it is already the business of our history to declare, that he was a man of vigorous intellect, deeply versed in the constitutional law of this country, and remarkable for both the force and perspicuity of his judgments. Chief justice Shippen was perhaps his superior in commercial law, and decidedly so in all that concerned the practice and process of the courts, of the reason and history of which, his knowledge was singularly accurate and extensive. Neither of them, however, had more of the *præterritorum memoria eventorum* than Mr. justice Yeates, or was better entitled to the praise of being *legibus patriæ optime institutus*. The decisions of these men gave value to the first volume of Reports that was published in the United States, a work that added something to our judicial reputation abroad, and has led the way to a signal improvement in our jurisprudence; for it cannot admit of question, that the numerous American Reports which have followed Mr. Dallas's first volume, have not only promoted a knowledge of the law, and given it both certainty and stability, where it would otherwise have continued to fluctuate, but have also raised the ambition of the bench, and thus entitled the judges of America to advance the loftiest pretensions to consideration and respect. Although this species of work has increased to what, in the apprehension of a frugal law-

ver, is an alarming extent, yet if such have been and continue to be its uses, no one should regret it. Where the court is well constituted, and the Reporter understands his business, every new volume is an accession not merely to the stock of professional learning, but to the security of personal liberty and private property.

ART. III.—*Letters from the South*, written during an excursion in the summer of 1816. By the author of John Bull and Brother Jonathan, &c. &c. *Ridentem dicere verum quid vetat?* Horace. 2 vols. 12mo.

THE originality of thought—the brilliant effervescence of genius, flowing and happy expression, but above all the correct, liberal, and truly national opinions of this writer, have gained upon our affections and deserve notice. He has talents fitted to vindicate the literary fame of our country, and reading more extensive than usually belongs to those who rely upon the powers of a fertile imagination in works of this nature.

If he can bring the exuberance of his fancy under strict control—if he can prosecute his calmer researches of study and inquiry with the same happy success as he manifests in composition, we may regard him as the future pride of our literature, a support to its fame.

By fixing his attention upon domestic interests, he has wisely chosen the most proper sphere of his utility, and by directing his argument to matters that come home to every man's bosom and business, he is the more likely to be attended to. Blending instruction with amusement, is to dignify the walk of letters, and to confer upon it that just value, deprived of which, wit has few charms and eloquence is unmoving,—*simul et jucunda et idonea dicere vitæ*.

Horace, in more than one place, has awarded the summit of his praise to those who mingle the *utile* with the *dulce*, and assumes to himself more than common merit for encouraging at his parties conversation of a rational kind, instead of gossip about neighbours and neighbours' concerns—matters, he observes, that do not properly belong to us.

The author has much merit for his classical allusions, which will always find admirers. We would recommend ancient literature to his frequent recurrence, as the foundation of a just taste, rather than perplexing himself about the opinion of modern critics or ephemeral prototypes, equally undeserving his notice. Addressing himself to an American public, he has no need of a foreign copy, without which he has ability enough to be independent and respectable. It is satisfactory to observe, that all the productions of this writer breathe the same genuine spirit, and we recognize in this, the same character that heretofore marked him as a pure unadulterated native genius. It is honourable to the public that they have passed a favourable judgment upon them. Indeed, few works of the day appeal more directly to the best feelings we possess. For our part, we could give the best ex-

cuse imaginable, if inclined to depart from the confines of truth for the purpose of over-praising any work, we mean, an entire coincidence of opinion with the author upon many of the subjects he has considered in the course of his peregrinations. His decided patriotism, his powerful national sentiment, and thorough contempt for little local prejudices—the high romantic opinion of his country that prevails throughout, must gain the approbation of all good citizens, and will probably make many friends in every state where his *Letters* shall reach.

The following will justify praise from every reader:

‘I have taken up an odd notion, that the people of the United States constitute one great nation; that whether a man be born east, west, north, or south, provided he is born within the limits of our country, he is still an American.

‘It is much to be wished that the people of the various divisions of the United States were a little more acquainted with each other, for, I am satisfied, they would like one another the better for it. At present, like the tenants of one of those amazing high houses in Edinburgh, that accommodate several families, though living, as it were, under the same roof, they have scarcely a speaking acquaintance. The impressions, which they long since took up on trust, with respect to each other, from ignorant or story-telling travellers, interested in deceiving or sporting with their credulity; the stories of horseracing, drinking, and gouging, on one hand, and of tricking and witch-burning on the other, that have passed current for a century or more, are still received as pictures of existing manners, though, even at any time, they were of rare occurrence, and very many of these practices are altogether extinct. The changes which succeed each other, in this camelion country, more rapidly than in any other part of the world, have, it would seem, passed unmarked and unrecorded, while the good people still continue to believe and tremble. The impressions of the natives here, with respect to those of the eastward, are still tinged with the remembrance of witch-burnings; and not a pious dame in our northern parts, that would not compound for her son coming back with one eye left, from an excursion into the back parts of the southern states.

‘Such foolish prejudices are worthy of honest John Bull, who, from time immemorial has believed that his neighbours, the French, eat frogs, and are destitute of religion, as well as of every manly and womanly virtue. But our people, who all read, and write, and think, and reason—some right—others wrong, ought to be ashamed of themselves, to believe so badly of their friends and neighbours. It is a foolish absurdity, even the product of national folly, or national antipathy, to assert, that cotemporary and neighbouring people, having the same lights of religion, living under similar laws, and enjoying, equally, the advantages of education, should be so essentially different in morals. They may differ, it is true, in manners; but there is no philosophical reason for their exhibiting a contrast of morals, or that one should be so much wiser or better than the other. I believe, if we place them fairly in comparison, with no interest to allure us astray, and no antipathies to tempt us from the truth, we shall find that an inferiority in one point will be met by a superiority in another; that, though they may differ in various respects, there is no general disparity; and that, on the whole, the scale remains equally balanced.’

When we examine an American literary production, the first thing we look to is, whether the author has adopted an English fashionable model or not; if he has, we then hasten to find whether he has drawn his characters, views, and opinions from the same source; and we confess that our good opinion of him is not improved if we discover that he has. Our best efforts in the literary walk are due to our own country, and we consider it a breach of duty to the republic of letters in America, to assist by servile conformity, the taste for every thing foreign in literature, now prevailing. The most apparent consequence of such a taste, is a state of colonization of intellect, and the critical opinions of the once mother country, are by some, deemed binding upon us in all cases whatsoever. It exposes us to misrepresentation, and is taken abroad as an undeniable proof that we want both talents and patriotism: though at the same time, if we deny the fact, it would puzzle almost any one of us to give a good reason, why two foreign reviews are always called upon to govern us in matters of a literary nature. The notice of new publications in our great cities, contains uniformly opinions of every work, extracted from the *Edinburgh* or *Quarterly Review*. It may be said in defence of this, that it is exceedingly convenient, and saves the Americans the trouble of thinking, and that we ought to be much obliged to Mr. Gifford or any body else, that would take so disagreeable and perplexing a matter off our hands. To be just, we seem to admit that the thing is reasonable enough, for whenever Mr. Gifford sends us a certificate that a book is to be read with safety, we give our perusal, perfectly satisfied; and it is not a little amusing to hear how exactly in unison the public expression and the English and Scotch reviewers are, with regard to most matters of a critical nature. An awkward state of feeling sometimes may arise, however, as in the instance of a work, such as the one before us. The *Edinburgh* lately has looked pleasantly enough* on American productions; but the *Quarterly*—wo to the author who presumes to think as he pleases on the subject of England, or who defies by name the *Quarterly Review*, and speaks disrespectfully of English button makers, and Cossack pantaloons. The offence cannot be forgiven, and we have no doubt but that the reviewer, when he comes to notice these letters, will compare the temerity of the author in provoking the attack, to that of the ingenious Irish gentleman who undertook to stop the explosion of a cannon with his wig.

‘At ——— I received a letter from you, dated almost a month ago, which I must answer forthwith. In the first place, you accuse me of hostility to English people and English literature, because I believe, I hope with becoming feeling, of the unceasing attempts of a great number of British writers, to injure the reputation of our countrymen and government in the eyes of the world. I disclaim the imputation of any other but defensive hostility; at the same time, I assure you, I am neither

* See the review of Franklin's *Private Correspondence* in the *Edinburgh Review*.

ashamed of feeling indignant at their calumnies, nor afraid of expressing my indignation. Whether abuse of the people of this country, its manners, morals, and literature, is a popular subject or not; or whether it assures to the calumniator the patronage of government, I am not able to say; but certain it is, that there is hardly a newspaper or political pamphlet, published in that country, favourable to the ministerial side, that does not in some part of it contain a repetition of splenetic effusions against us. If the Reviewers get hold of an American publication, it is made use of merely as a pretext to calumniate us in some way or other; and one of the most celebrated of the Reviews seems to have been established for hardly any other purpose, than to libel America and France. It is called the *Quarterly Review*, and being rather an obscure, contemptible kind of a Billingsgate production, would hardly merit attention, were it not for its propensity to general and indiscriminate abuse of any body the ministers dislike. In times less enlightened than the present, political satire and abuse were generally confined to newspapers and pamphlets, and the title of the article corresponded with the subject. It is the peculiar boast of this age, that criticism should have been enlisted into the service of party, and that a critic can now snugly vent his spleen upon a whole people, or party, in reviewing a book, which has nothing to do with the subject. What is perhaps still more extraordinary, many of the most enlightened people of this country, do actually pay attention to the judgment of these impartial critics, and not unfrequently make up their minds, as to the merits of a book, on the decision of these competent judges. Don't mistake me, in supposing that I mean to say, their decisions are never founded on the real merits of a book; I will do them the justice to say, that if they have no particular antipathy to an author—if the subject of his work does not in the remotest degree affect the ministry, or go to advocate the abolition of the office of inspector-general of pipes—if, in short, the work has nothing to do with the favourite opinions of the Reviewers—it is just as likely as not, that he will give a tolerable judgment; provided he don't forget the book altogether, in the pleasure of hearing himself abuse the Americans.

Great Britain, as well as the more enlightened portion of this country, is now rent and divided into two great factions, marshalled under the banners of the two great Reviewers, one carrying the sway over Scotland, the other over England and Wales; the first sometimes mistaken, but willing to retract; vide Lord Byron; the latter, always tenacious in opinion, especially when he is in the wrong, and only to be deterred from the repetition of old calumnies, by the refreshing temptation of new ones.

This gentleman was once a cabin-boy in a Newcastle collier; and I should disdain to mention this to his disparagement, had not he deserted his cast, and become the enemy and calumniator of the very class of people from whence he derived his birth, ever since he became superintendent of pipes, and wrote esquire to his name. There was lately in N—— a sea-captain under whom the Reviewer served his apprenticeship, who told several amusing anecdotes of the little fellow. Among other matters he mentioned his pertinacity, in sticking to a calumny, when once he had given it utterance, and the invincible obstinacy with which he resisted the application of a rope's end, which was generally employed to get the truth out of him. The honest captain moreover averred, that he was the ugliest, snarling, captious, troublesome little

cabin-boy he ever had in his ship; and that his ungovernable hostility to the Americans, arose from his having once been terribly flogged by a Yankee sailor at Wapping.

‘To award that justice he has never awarded us, I will do him the credit to say, that amid all the disadvantages of his situation, he managed to cultivate learning, insomuch that he at length gained the notice of some munificent gentleman, who sent him to the university, where he excited attention, not so much for being a great scholar, as being a great scholar considering he was brought up a cabin-boy.

‘Among those who were smitten with wonder at such a phenomenon, was Earl Grosvenor, a nobleman who, being immensely rich, had little occasion for any extraordinary portion of understanding. It struck his lordly capacity, that it was a most wonderful thing for a man, who was neither a lord nor a gentleman born, to have either common sense or common feeling. So he took him under his protection, brought him into notice, and continued his patron to the end of his life. The moment he got among lords, he began to assume all the airs of a man of high aristocratic birth, tacked esquire to his name, and on all occasions expressed his utter contempt for democrats and common people. This is ever the case with men of low and grovelling minds, who are continually reminding us of their former insignificance, by their ill-bred arrogance when fortune smiles. He wrote a poem, now gone down to oblivion; one of those productions which acquire celebrity, not from their own merits, but the demerits of those they are aimed at. It gave the finishing blow to the miserable *Delia Cruscans* however, and the embryo Reviewer strutted about in triumph, like a little school-boy, when he has made the frogs duck their heads and be quiet, by throwing a pebble in a pond; or more appropriately, like *Don Quixote* when he had utterly discomfited the wool-clad host of *Trapoban*. About this time he made a furious attack on the French revolution, while presiding over the *Antijacobin Review*, where he played the part of “moonshine” to Mr. Canning, the sun by whose reflected light he shone. The next time he came before the public, was as the translator of *Juvenal*. In order to make room for this, he began by finding fault with all preceding translators; being, I suppose, resolved to raise his own work by bringing others below its level. The harsh and overweening arrogance of this preface, was worthy the editor of the *Quarterly Review*, which, if I mistake not, praised it, either from a fellow feeling arising from similarity of character, or because the translator of *Juvenal* was at that time editor of the *Review*. The world has probably forgotten these circumstances; for it is a peculiarity of this writer, that whatever he does, after having provoked a temporary indignation or contempt, sinks quietly into oblivion, or is only brought into public notice by some more heinous misdemeanor. He resembles a convict, whose petty rogueries are only brought to light by more serious offences, which at last bring him to the halter, where they all come out in his last dying speech.

‘Since this fortunate, or rather unfortunate gentleman, has become the high priest of public opinion in England, the inspector-general of tobacco-pipes, he has attracted the attention of the people of this country, pretty much in the same way. His name would probably never have been heard in this wide western hemisphere, and certainly never would have been honoured by the contempt of a great majority of the Americans, who have chanced to hear of him, had he not as it were forced himself into our notice, like a little irritable cur, by following us around,

barking and biting our heels, until we are tempted to turn against the puppy, for his obtrusive impertinence and persevering ill nature. Every thing written by this doughty esquire is marked by the characteristics of his early vulgar associations; his reprehensions are vulgar abuse; his wit is of the true fore-castle smack; his satire is calumny; his humour of the genuine coal-heaver stamp, and his criticism partakes of that coarse harshness, which almost always distinguishes a low man, raised by fortune rather than merit, to a height he neither sustains by his dignity, nor adorns by his modest worth.

‘It is from the influence of opinions coming to us under the sanction of such a person, that I would wish to see my countrymen entirely freed. While I feel gratitude for the instruction, the pleasure, the delight, which I have derived, and still derive, from the productions of British genius: while I look up to the writers of former days, as the rich fountain from whence my mind derived its earliest nourishment, I neither consider my obligations to extend to a respect for the opinions of a pert and splenetic hireling, or to a quiet acquiescence in his abuse, although he is the countryman of Shakspeare and Goldsmith. While I reverence and admire these latter, I do not see any special reason why all the Grub-street writers of England, should receive our admiration, and challenge the privilege of reviling us, merely because they happen to be their countrymen.’

In good truth, our author seems not much to care what is said about his opinions; for, let the subject be what it may, he gives his views of it without hesitation. Charitable associations, missionaries, banks, beggars, ’tis all one to him. We love him, however, for this very indifference, and frankness; for his superlatively good humoured and candid way of giving us his thoughts; and, whenever he gets upon the subject of his own country, or in other words, “mounts his hobby,” we cannot resist the inclination to jump up behind him. Still, however, it is when he is serious, and quits local subjects, that we recognize his greatest power as a writer; his descriptions of nature, and the feelings arising from the contemplation of her striking features, are given with a force and feeling highly poetical; and wherever the subject is touching, or what is called a “tender one,” the author is always true to himself, and never languishes, or is tame.

Some of the letters have already appeared in this Magazine, vol. 9, under the title of “Letters from Virginia,” and to these we refer our readers for more ample specimens of the author’s general style in this production; the following extract may serve to show his prevailing cast of description.

‘The third, and I think the finest view of all, is from one of the green hills back of the little village, on which there is a small wooden building, called the magazine. It discloses the windings of the Potomac above, where it becomes a quiet stream, clear and smooth, contrasted with its rough tumultuous course below; and combines a view of the whole chasm, and opening vista, with a distant amphitheatre of mountains, far in the west, rising one above the other, and presenting in their mellowing shades, and harmonious, undulating outlines, images of peace and repose. To sooth the mind in the midst of this wreck of nature, there is a canal on either side of the Potomac. The banks of that on

the Virginia side affords a most romantic walk, rendered interesting by the rough passage of the river on one side, and the broken cliffs overhanging the other. Under one of these ledges stands a small white cottage, so singularly picturesque as to deserve a description. It is built in a pretty taste, and is literally canopied by a projecting ledge of rock, the top of which being flat, there is a little garden on the top of it, in which I observed rose-bushes and beds of flowers. Before it is a little grass plat bordered by the canal. Will not the muse of this new world, think you, one day or other, awaken in these beautiful scenes, and illustrate them in strains that will make classical at some future period, like those of Greece, Italy, and Scotland? The same beauty ought to inspire the same enthusiasm every where; and the same enthusiasm will sooner or later produce the same effects. As yet we have not struck the harp whose strings vibrate in unison with the cords of our hearts. The genius that has awakened in our country is not the genius of America, but a mongrel imitative creature, expatriated in his affections, and incapable of connecting the poetry of the country with the feelings, attachments, and associations of the people for whom he affects to write. But the time will come, when some chosen genius will find the secret of obtaining a reputation coexistent with the duration of this country; not so much by writing better poetry than other men, as by the addressing his lines to the hearts of his countrymen. He who wishes for a lasting fame, must write for his countrymen, and not for foreign critics.'

Some of the author's portraits remind us of Steele's Papers in the Spectator. They display similar capacity of discrimination, and a talent for portraying character more chaste than is common amongst us.

'The city of Richmond deserves to have a song written about it, as well as Richmond-hill, where lived a lass, in England; and were I a poet, it should not be without it twenty-four hours. It is beautifully situated, just on the line of division between the region of sea-sand, and of river alluvious, and at the foot of James River rapids. Above, the river foams and roars among the rocks; below, it winds gently and quietly through a sweet landscape of meadows, and golden harvest fields. It was once, and until lately, inhabited principally by a race of most ancient and respectable planters, having estates in the country, who chose it for their residence for the sake of social enjoyment. They formed a society, which, I am sorry to say, is now seldom to be met with in any of our cities: I mean a society of people, not exclusively monopolized by money-making pursuits, but of liberal education, liberal habits of thinking and acting, and possessing both leisure and inclination to cultivate those feelings, and pursue those objects, which exalt our nature, rather than increase our fortune. I am however one of those who, like honest Candide, think all things happen for the best, and that this is the best of all possible worlds. I therefore don't actually quarrel with the money-getting spirit that pervades all our great cities, to the utter exclusion of the encouragement of literature, except so far as it is necessary to pen an advertisement. It makes men rich, if not liberal and enlightened: and in places where wealth is synonymous with virtue and intellect, it may, for aught I know, answer in lieu of both. I shall never forget how the good alderman, your father, dropt his knife and fork, one day, when I asserted at his table, that ———, the great merchant, who was actually president of a bank, and had the credit of being worth millions,

was, in feeling, intellect, and action, no better than a pedlar. The alderman looked at me as if I had abused general Washington or the Bible; and I have never sat at the good man's table since. But without exactly quarrelling with that sordid disposition, or that ostentatious, yet vulgar profusion, which in general actuates the people of our great cities, to the exclusion of every nobler pursuit, and all rational economy; still I may venture to lament its universality. In days of yore, Plutus, although he shone in gold and precious stones, hid himself in the bowels of the earth; but now he is seen clothed in ragged bank-notes, taking precedence every where in the city drawing-rooms. There is now no place where a knot of harmless people of moderate fortune can sit down in the undisturbed enjoyment of social ease, or the cultivation of literature and science, free from the intrusion of tobacco, tar, pitch, potash, and cod-fish; sandahs, baftas, buglipours, and all the jargon of East India commodities. If they have a moderate competency, they are beset by greedy beggars, who, by dint of perseverance, at length tempt them to engage in some profitable speculation, which draws them gradually from their former pursuits, and ingulfs them for ever in the vortex of gain.

‘In fact, no young man, now-a-days, at least in our commercial places, thinks of sitting down quietly in the enjoyment of wealth, and the cultivation of those elegant pursuits which adorn our nature, and exalt a country. Sometimes, indeed, he becomes what is called a gentleman, that is to say, he abandons every useful or honourable pursuit, and either lounges away a contemptible existence in doing nothing, or in doing what he ought not to have done. But the most common fate of young men, in our part of the world, who inherit great fortunes is, to set about making them greater. They seem never to think of the enjoyment of that lofty independence, which is the lot of the young man of wealth who retires to the enjoyment of what has been left him by his fathers. They seem to think there is no alternative between absolute idleness, and absolute devotion to business: nor do they appear to recollect, that the noblest employment of wealth is, to do good with it, and employ the leisure it bestows in the pursuit of knowledge, rather than the accumulation of superfluous riches, which they will not bestow on others, and know not how to enjoy themselves.

‘These sentiments are exemplified in the case of our two school-fellows, H—— and D——, both of whom, at about the age of three and twenty, inherited fortunes that would have been ample in any part of the world, and were well educated. H——, who was always turning a penny at school, and cried his eyes out once at losing a sixpence through a crack in the floor of the school, on receiving his fortune, began to look out for bargains; and put himself under the tuition of one of the most experienced *shavers* of the city, to learn all the wretched debasing arts of the trade. In this way he grew richer and richer; and meaner and meaner. If he gave a great dinner, from pure ostentation, he starved his household, while he was eating the dinners given him in turn. He kept a carriage; but it cost him more in whips than in hay, and he saved the expense of his stable in his kitchen. He became at last a great man, according to the city acception—for he was a director of a half-broken insurance company, and bank; every body looked up to him, not because he *would*, but because he *could* be of service to them, and the president of one of the banks was heard to say publicly one day, that he believed that H—— was one of the most moneyed men in the city. Thus

he lived, and thus will he die, without ever having conceived even the abstract idea of any pursuit, but that of money, money, money; or any enjoyment but in its accumulation.

‘But little D——, on the contrary, was determined to be a gentleman, according to the fashionable idea of the present day in our cities. As he was to be rich, there was no occasion for him to know any thing—but how to enjoy it like a gentleman. He accordingly took his degree as the first dunce in the college; and the first thing he did on coming to the possession of nearly half a million, was to send out his measure for a suit of clothes to a London taylor. He forthwith enlisted himself under some tavern bucks, and strutted up and down —— with a surtout which saved the corporation the trouble of sweeping the streets—was seen every where at public places and parties, without doing any thing but yawn at the one, and stand in every body’s way in the other, eating pickled oysters. His estimate of a party, where a man of feeling and refinement would go to enjoy elegant society, and rational amusement, was always founded on the quantity of porter, wine, and pickled oysters handed round. Never was he known on any occasion, to do any one thing either pleasing or useful—and, of course, in a little time he attained to the reputation of a fine gentleman; because, as he never did any thing, he must needs be so; employment being unworthy that high character. Some of the best bred people doubted his pretensions, until he thought of finding fault with every thing he heard and saw, when the opinion of his high breeding became unanimous.

‘Whether the people got tired of him, or he grew tired of the people, I don’t exactly know; but in order to get a new gloss, he went abroad, staid six months, and came back vastly improved; for he found this country more intolerable than ever—a sure sign of excessive refinement, especially as he made a point of proclaiming his opinion aloud at all parties. When I was last at N—— I saw him in a book-store, reading a book upside down, and dressed as follows: to wit, one little hat, with a steeple crown; one pair of corsetts; one coat, so tight he could just breathe; one pair of pantaloons, so immeasurably wide and loose you could hardly tell whether they were petticoats or not; I don’t recollect the residue of his costume—but his hair came out from beneath his hat like an ostrich’s tail, and he stuck out behind like the African Venus. No doubt the ladies found him quite irresistible.

‘One might moralize and speculate on what had been the different estimation of these young men, at least hereafter, had they pursued a course becoming their fortune and education, and devoted themselves to a useful or brilliant career. Had they employed part of their fortunes, and their leisure, in adorning their minds, and encouraging a taste for refined, elegant, and scientific pursuits. Although perhaps they might not have attained to any lofty eminence, they would have become associated, at least with those that were eminent. They might have become their patrons, if not their equals, and attained to a blameless, nay, noble immortality, as the munificent encouragers of genius; instead of being in their lives, the contempt of the virtuous and the wise; and in their deaths, the companions of oblivion.’

The author is peculiarly happy in his talent for serious reflection combined with the enjoyment of rural scenery. His sentiments on the importance of the Sabbath as a day of rest—its observance in a moral and political point of view—the obligation of

its duties, as essential to the well being of society, are expressed with the fervour of a true Christian, and all the elegance of a man of letters.

‘In return for the interesting information conveyed in your letter, you ask me more questions than I can answer in six months. One of these has diverted me so much, that in pure gratitude for the amusement it afforded, I will take it in hand forthwith. I am sure aunt Kate put it into your wise head. You ask me seriously if there are any churches in this part of the world; and whether people ever go to church here, except when they are carried to be buried? I did not mention to you my stopping the Sunday before last at a rambling village, where I was smitten with the sight of a little church, for the purpose of attending the service. I generally keep these things to myself, for I think that a man who talks always about his religion is pretty much on a par with one who does the same of his honesty. I would’nt trust either quite as far as I could see him. But I will now answer your question by telling you all about it.

‘You must know that after riding about a dozen miles before breakfast one Sunday morning, we came to a village, at the end of which there was a little neat stone church, almost buried in a wood of lofty oaks, under which there was a green lawn without any underwood. It reminded me of an old familiar scene of early days, and also of a great duty; and after breakfast we went with our good landlady to church. The pew was close by an open window, out of which you could see through the opening trees a little clear river. Farther on a broad expanse of green meadow—beyond that a far-fading mountain—and above it a bright blue sky. What a path for a man’s thoughts to ascend to heaven! Nothing was heard but the chirping of birds, peeping sometimes into the window; or the cautious footsteps of the villagers, creeping up the aisle, until the service commenced.

‘The hymn was sung first, and began with, “There is a land of pure delight,” &c. and was sung with that plaintive simplicity we sometimes notice in the ballad of a country lad, of a summer’s evening. The appearance of the preacher was as simple as his discourse; and there was nothing to mark any peculiarity, except a Scottish accent that announced his parentage. There was no need of his proclaiming the beneficence, or power of the Divinity, for the balmy air, the glowing sunshine, the rich and plenteous fields, that lay spread around as far as the eye could reach, told of the one; while the lofty mountains, visible in every direction, proclaimed the other. He left the attributes of the Deity to be read in his glorious works, and with simple pathos, called on his hearers to show their gratitude for his dispensations, by the decency, usefulness, and peacefulness of their lives. His precepts denounced no innocent recreation, and I was told his example encouraged no vice or irregularity—not even the besetting sin of his profession, pride and arrogance. He ended his discourse without any theatrical flourish of trumpets—without seeking to *elevate* the Saviour by placing him above Socrates or any other heathen philosopher; and I believe without creating in his hearers any other feeling than that of a gentle quiet sentiment of devotion, not so high toned, but more lasting and salutary than mere enthusiasm. Another hymn was sung, and the audience came out of church, but waited on either side of the path outside the door, to shake hands and say how d’ye do, as is the good old country custom.

‘There was nothing certainly in all this, but what may be seen in almost

any church, and yet it made an impression on me that is still pleasing and touching in the remembrance. I don't know how it is, but there is something in the repose of the country, and particularly in the silence and shade of deep groves, that is allied to religious emotions by some inscrutable tie. Perhaps it is because almost every object we see in the country is the work of Deity, and every object common to cities the work of man. Though we do not make the comparison consciously, yet the result is the same; or perhaps much more forcible, because the impression is that of feeling, rather than of reasoning.

'If I doubted the divinity of the Christian faith, which I do not, seeing as I do the influence of its pure morality, its humane, and benignant, and softening precepts, I would never whisper of doubt. Independently of the sad effects that would result from weakening the foundation of this system of morals, in the minds of those who have not capacity to perceive its importance to the happiness of society, and therefore follow it from a conviction of its divine origin, the attempt would deservedly end in disgrace and discomfiture. None but a vain and foolish man would, therefore, undertake the task of weakening the force of any of those beneficial opinions, which, if not founded in truth, are at least necessary to the well-being of society. The ignorant will oppose him from the influence of an old established habit of thinking, and the wise from a conviction of the salutary effect of such impressions.

'Nothing can more completely show the importance of religion, not only to the morals but the manners of the great mass of mankind, than the contrast afforded by a village where there is regular service every Sabbath-day, and one where there is none. In the former you see a different style of manners entirely. Instead of lounging at a tavern, dirty and unshaven, the men are seen decently dressed and shaved, for the purpose of going to church; and the women exhibiting an air of neatness quite attractive. Whether they go to church to pray, or pass their time, to see their neighbours and be seen, or to show off their Sunday clothes; it keeps them from misusing the Sabbath, and polluting the periods of rest and relaxation, by practices either injurious to themselves or disgraceful to society. Whoever has become acquainted with the nature of man, first by his own experience, and next by an observation of others, must be fully convinced of the importance of giving him amusements that are not vicious, and modes of relaxation that are innocent. "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy"—so does it make him a dull and stupid man. Men, in truth, cannot always be employed; and those who are unable to supply the tedium of bodily inertness, by the exercise of the mind, will—I say *will*, amuse themselves in some way or other. If you afford them the means of attending church on the Sabbath—the most dangerous day of the week, because a day of idleness—whatever be their motives for going there, both their morals and their manners will be softened, by having some object for decency in dress and behaviour; and something salutary to attract them in the dangerous interregnum of a day of leisure.'

The observations on the profession of the law are so acute, ingenious and forcible that we only regret he did not make it the subject of more than one brief letter. It is rarely we meet with so much intelligence—and still rarer, a disposition to communicate the overflowings of a rich understanding.

At parting we have only to recommend to the author a more

guarded restraint over the powers of his fancy, and to remember that genius requires checks in proportion to its sallies. Let him inculcate respect for seminaries of learning wherever happily they are found, and uphold that great concern of education, to which he himself owes his celebrity. With these admonitions, which we hope will be received in the same spirit of good will with which they are expressed, we take our leave of two interesting little volumes, trusting the author will mature with experience, and adopt this as a future motto—"delectando pariterque monendo." He may then expect something more than a fleeting popularity, by conveying permanent good in the most insinuating form.

ART. IV.—*The Bridal of Vaumond*—a Metrical Romance, &c. New York. 1817.

A MERICAN manufactures of all descriptions, it would seem, do not succeed when of the finer kind. We bring our coarse woollens and cottons into competition with those of Europe, with very fair success; but the finer qualities are sure to be met and undersold by foreign goods of a better kind. We do our best, too, to imitate the English in their composition and dyes, and even in "the cut" of their patterns; but whether it be owing to our real unskilfulness, or to the prejudice in favour of those which have crossed the Atlantic, certain it is, that they do not command as ready a sale as the European manufactures. This peculiarity appears to extend even to the literary mart which, like every other, has its finer and coarser species of production. The great literary staple of the country seems to be the newspaper, on which much talent is exercised and wasted, which, if brought to a focus, would appear far more striking and respectable than it does. Next come the pamphlets and magazines; many of which, to use the expression of "the trade," are "got up" in as good a style as those of the great emporium of taste and talent. These, and a few scattered tours and popular histories, succeed very well: but when we come to the higher and finer branches of the literary art, and especially that of poetry, we exhibit a most striking inferiority to our transatlantic rivals. Whether it be that we are deficient in the materials, or as in the case of other manufactured goods, that we are wanting in a knowledge of those finer essences which constitute the great charm of the composition, American poetry does not seem, (to use the language of the prices current,) to be in much request.

Here now is a piece of goods "got up" after the very last English fashion; the author of which appears not merely to have chosen the same materials, but to have copied, with admirable fidelity, the style and colouring, in various places, of our great transatlantic idols. The whole effect, to be sure, has some resemblance to patch-work; for we have in one place a strand of expressions, à la Scott, and in another à la Byron; and like the Chinese artist, our author has copied both defects and beauties: yet upon the whole it has been done with such exemplary skill, that were it not

for two or three modest hints, we should certainly have purchased it as an article of genuine English manufacture. In spite of this imposing appearance we fear it will not be very popular, and that the author will experience the truth of the old proverb, that "when two men ride on horseback, one must ride behind." Scott and Byron have each their respective hobbies; and it is much to be feared, that whosoever gets astride of the same animals will be forced to take the back ground. It is indeed a melancholy fact, as our author more than hints, that, (in the words of Clifton,)

"beneath these shifting skies,
Where genius sickens, and where fancy dies,"

poetry is not rewarded as it deserves to be: and we are sorely afraid that he is not destined to be an exception to the general rule. If this unfortunately shall be the case, we fear it must be attributed to his subject and style, rather than to the unlucky circumstance of his having been born within the limits of the republic. Foraddicted as our reading population is to the laudable custom of admiring every thing which has crossed the Atlantic, still it has sometimes exhibited a little nausea at finding the same kind of dish served up by American cooks, without the alteration of a single ingredient; and that when so boundless a variety of home materials was before them. The unrivalled beauty and sublimity of our scenery, our majestic waters, and more than Grecian heaven, the contrast between the extreme civilization of the Atlantic, and the wild barbarism of our western frontier; and the moral splendour of our history, offer themes for a poet, which unfortunately the "untravelled taste" of the natives, though considerably improved by foreign reviews, and by the residence among us of the distinguished literati of Manchester and Glasgow, is still predisposed to admire. But, with all these, we have, unfortunately, in this matter-of-fact country, neither "donjons," nor "samoons," nor "siroccos," nor "lairs," nor "volcanos," nor "gazelles." We have neither knights, nor pages, nor eremites, nor friars, black, white, or gray; and our "gentles," though sufficiently robust, are not exactly "stalwart," nor are our criminals quite "unassoiled." In short, we want all the requisites of *fashionable* poetry, and as in venturing into our untried ocean, he could derive no assistance from these and the like land-marks, our author has very wisely resolved, we think, "to hug the shore" of the Mediterranean, as he is pleased to express it. True it is, that Horace bestows no mean share of praise on those of his own countrymen who had the courage

"vestigia Græcæ
deserere et celebrare domestica facta;"

yet when it is considered that in so doing, an author would be forced to give up all the old stock of materials which are ready seasoned for his purpose, and venture upon what may turn out very frail supports of his edifice, we must acknowledge that it is the safest plan to tread in the beaten track.

It has often happened to authors to be intuitively, as it were, acquainted with their own merit, and to foresee that future suc-

cess which the cold neglect of the world denied them when living. Thus Ovid predicts the deathless nature of his poems; and Milton, who was only known in his day as "a blind man and a republican," foretells, in confident terms, his final exaltation. With all the weight, however, of such authorities in favour of a modest self-confidence, we confess we were somewhat startled at the very outset of the "*Bridal of Vaumond*," by finding the author's opinion of himself expressed without reserve in the preface. "After this candid confession," says he, "he states, not by way of apology, but to give his readers *fair data to form their estimate of his ability*, that he is yet a youth, and, among the rhymers of the day, '*a childe*,' in a legal, as well as in a poetical sense of the term." Now, as, according to our understanding of the word, "*childe*" signifies *a knight*, both in "a legal and poetical sense," we feel considerable apprehension lest some of the carping critics of the day, whom our author pleasantly describes as

"School-boy reviewers, mountebanks of sense,
"Who never blundered thro' their accidence,"

should be inclined to require farther proof beside his mere *ipse dixit* of his having obtained the honour of poetical knighthood. We trust, however, he will not be cast down by such ill-natured incredulity, satisfied, as he is pleased to intimate, that "if there be any of the *disjecti membra poetæ*, he must be encouraged—il sera bientôt deterré." By which '*membra disjecti poetæ*' we presume he means something of the same kind as Polonius did, when he spake of the "limbs and outward flourishes of wit."

The poem which follows this display of learning, is divided into three parts, each part containing four "scenes." To each of these parts is prefixed an introductory epistle, written with exemplary fidelity after the manner of those in *Marmion*; the "proem" and "conclusion" being apparently from "a study," (as the painters call it) of the noble leader of the present "irritable genus." The scene which the author has chosen, we think with great judgment, as it is apropos to volcanos, lava, and such convenient similes, is the island of Sicily. The time, we conjecture, from some loose hints, to be about the twelfth century. This we also take to be a proof of the poet's art, as many useful personages, the race of which has since become extinct, are supposed to have flourished about that period, to the great benefit of many of the writers of this age. But the author's great talent, we think, is shown in the conception and management of his plot, of which we shall present a brief outline to our readers. A certain peasant of Sicily, it seems, had the misfortune to be the father of a very misshapen and deformed son, with "huge feet, crooked legs, and goggle eyes," as he facetiously describes him. This interesting being, in pure despite to nature, entered into articles of agreement with certain spirits of the mountains, by which, for a valuable consideration, he assigned and set over to them, all his right, title, and interest in the Christian faith; and forthwith, by their magic, is transform-

ed into a gay and gallant knight, bearing about him, like Macbeth, "a charmed life," but liable to a dissolution of the charm, by uniting in any of the ceremonies of the church. Having put on the new man, it seems he was very successful in his amours, particularly with the daughter of a certain count Gonsalvo. The exordium opens with a song of the spirits, who are assembled for the composition of a charm, which, as usual, is effected by means of a broth, the ingredients of which are pretty much the same with those generally employed on like occasions. Vaumond (for that is the name of our author's renegade hero) receives the charm, though we are sorry to say he does not evince much gratitude, and retires from the cave. The next canto, or scene, as the author calls them, introduces us to the acquaintance of the fair Isabel, who, it seems, was kept awake either by love or something else, and resolves to "forth and walk a while." During her ramble by the sea shore, she has a glimpse of a vision, which turns out to be a kind of prophetic magic lantern, at which she marvels much, turns in again, and soon drops asleep; her love it seems, or whatever else was the disorder, being relieved by the ramble. Then follows a tournament, by which we see that Vaumond, and a certain gallant knight named Lodowick, are competitors for the lady's smiles; the latter appears to be the favourite, but unfortunately comes off second best in the combat, and leaving the field to his rival, takes a pensive stroll by the river side, where he falls in with a fair page, who tells a plausible story; and Lodowick remembering that he is engaged to dine with somebody, and having, we suppose, a pretty good appetite after his exercise, breaks off his conference abruptly. The second part opens with an account of this banquet, at which we find our old friend Vaumond, who, merely for asking Miss Isabel to dance with him, is, we must say, rather rudely treated by Lodowick, who, in the presence of the lady, and several others, challenges him to a combat the next day, which is accepted by the other. The next day, however, instead of the conflict taking place, to the great disappointment of the fair Isabel we presume, the *gallant* Lodowick is not to be found, and his character, as may be supposed, does not gain by the proceeding. The heroine, who we suppose was of the old opinion, that "none but the brave deserve the fair," immediately, it seems, closes with the offer of Vaumond, and indeed appears to have yielded, with singular facility, to the addresses of the enemy of her lover, for we find her in a very critical situation in a bower with him, when the page unfortunately enters. The gidevant lover, in the mean time, had been suffering all the pangs of "durance vile," having been carried off the night preceding the intended combat, by some singular beings, with iron arms, and shut up in a cavern, where he finds himself in the neighbourhood of strange noises, and learns some of the mysteries of Hecate, discovering inter alia, that his old enemy Vaumond is a member of the lodge. He is at length relieved by a very convenient earthquake, and sallies forth in search of his former acquaintance, when he falls in

with an old gentleman who sings a very facetious song about the deformities of his own son, by which we gather that he is the father of Vaumond. In the mean time Isabel, it seems, was on the point of taking Vaumond for her spouse, but did not much fancy the looks of the parson by whom they were to be made one, nor the general aspect of affairs in the wedding room; and we must say, that considering her apparent temperament, she displayed great prudence. The priest turns out to be a sham one, being, it seems, one of Vaumond's satanic friends, dressed up for the purpose; and the service is about being performed in a very unchristian style, when another earthquake (we believe) intervenes; "the fiend priest" vanishes, and she finds herself on the plain, supported by "two stranger serfs," who, of course, can be no other than her old lover, and his ballad-singing acquaintance. "Tendimus in Latium" now, for Lodowick challenges Vaumond again to the combat, and having grown a little wiser since his former non-suit, now requires his rival to swear that he is not assisted by magic, which he refuses to do. A conflict ensues between Lodowick and the spectators on one side, and Vaumond and his legion of devils on the other, when Vaumond, having "bent" to a blow of Lodowick, is immediately changed to his former state of a decrepid elf, and vanishes in a huff. The story concludes with the union of Lodowick with the tender-hearted Isabel, who, indeed, seems to have had no particular objection to committing matrimony with any body. Such is the plot which our ingenious author has contrived for that worthy part of the literary community who love to read late at night, and to feel time, place, and circumstance harmonize with the horrors of their book. To such, we can with confidence recommend this little volume, satisfied that they will either find much to their taste in its contents, or that after perusing it they will enjoy that pleasing repose which the author seems to anticipate, when he wishes, (and which we heartily join,)

"God speed to all,
On whom slumber's lightsome links may fall."

To speak seriously, however, of the author and his book, notwithstanding the affectations and plagiarisms with which the *Bridal of Vaumond* is rife, we still think it displays some power of fancy, and considerable talent for versification. The introductory epistles, where he speaks after his own manner, and does not servilely copy foreign poetry, are the best part of the book, and in one of them he exhibits very respectable powers of description. We recommend to him in his next poem to abjure the heresy of witchcraft and magic, to discard affectation of language, and to be less addicted "jurare in verba magistri." He is evidently capable of appreciating and representing our natural scenery: all that is wanting is to give it a moral interest. At present our history is unnoticed, and our landscape neglected:

"Carent quia vate sacro."

ART. V.—*Books Republished.*

1. *The Hero, or the Adventures of a Night*—a romance. Translated from the Arabic into Iroquise, &c. Philadelphia. 1817.
2. *The Itinerant, or Memoirs of an Actor*. Part II. 3 vols. Philadelphia. 1817.
3. *The Balance of Comfort, or the Old Maid and Married Woman*—a novel, by Mrs. Ross, author of the *Marchioness*, &c. New York. 1817.
4. *The Knight of St. John*—a romance, by Miss Anna Maria Porter, author of the *Recluse of Norway*. 2 vols. Philadelphia. 1817.
5. *Letters from the Cape of Good Hope in Reply to Mr. Warden, with Extracts from the Great Work now compiling for publication under the inspection of Napoleon.*

THERE probably never was a period in which such a variety of dishes was presented to the literary epicure as at present. Whatever we may think of the solidity and permanence of the current literature, certain it is, that no palate need now remain ungratified for want of a choice. From the voluminous history and ponderous epic, down to the lighter kinds under notice, and which may perhaps not improperly be termed the side-dishes of the literary feast, every description of English book is republished in this country, and not a month passes over our heads without an addition of at least a dozen novelties to each course. Ten years ago, we believe, it was considered a very adventurous thing in a bookseller to republish an English work, unless perchance it were a geography or a grammar, without a subscription list well filled, and the previous sanction of the English reviewers. Now, scarcely a book on any popular subject is published in England, but immediately on its arrival here it goes to the American press, and is generally in the hands of the American reader in less than three months after its first appearance in England.

When so much is brought out, it is natural to suppose there must be a considerable difference of quality; and it is sometimes our fate to peruse *poetry*, which nothing but the proverbial patience of a Reviewer could wade through; sometimes to endure what is intended for wit, but which certainly must have been generated in an English fog. The republications, on the whole, are creditable to the taste of the public and to the good sense of the publishers: and we are happy to observe from some late announcements in the newspapers, indications of a demand for the more useful and substantial works of good old times.

Of the publications, the titles of which we have prefixed to this article, the first is intended, as far as we have been able to develop the author's meaning, for a *humorous* satire on certain romances which were formerly in great request at the circulating libraries. Unfortunately, however, for the author, the jest has come too late. Horrors, like "damns," (as Acres says) "have had their day." The public attention has taken another and a more le-

gitimate turn, thanks to Miss Edgeworth and the author of *Waverley*: the bandittis and Schedonis of the "mighty magician of Udolpho" had already faded into nothing before the gipsies and fishermen of the Scottish Shakspeare; and we now no more expect to see a ghost, when we open a novel, than in passing a churchyard. We fear, too, that the author of "*the Hero*" wants other requisites for success. There is no kind of weapon apparently more simple, but at the same time more difficult to manage properly, than ridicule; and we can conceive no situation more mortifying than for a writer who thinks he has been very facetious, to find his readers of quite another opinion. Such, we suspect, will be the fate of the author of *the Hero*. We have really seldom met with a work quite so dull and so devoid of the most remote resemblance to wit or even humour. We are truly grateful that it is of foreign manufacture, and are persuaded that the very worst of our home writers would be ashamed of fathering such a production.

The *Itinerant* is the continuation of a work under the same name, which was published a few years since, and professes to be an account of the life and adventures of a performer named Ryley, who has, it seems, been strutting and fretting through life to very little pecuniary purpose. We hardly know, however, whether to class it under the head of real or fictitious narratives. On the one hand, the author is very liberal in his descriptions and anecdotes of many living persons of notoriety, with whom he appears to have had intercourse, and indeed gives us letters from several; but again, there are so many unnatural incidents, long romantic dialogues, and tales, that we are half inclined to think the whole a piece of invention. The truth is, we suppose that the frame and many of the materials are genuine; but that Mr. Ryley, being in want of a sufficient number of *facts* to eke out his three volumes, has mixed a little alloy with them, for the benefit of his purse. Whichever way it is considered, the book, we think, is an amusing one. The lives of players indeed have generally been prolific of incident and entertainment. The diversified nature of their situation—their improvidence—thoughtlessness—the rambling tenor of their lives, abound in materials for narration; the amusement of which is not lessened by the theatrical language in which they are often conveyed. The biographies of Foote, of Edwin, and of Cooke, as well as some others, come under this description. Mr. Ryley, though not holding so high a rank upon the stage as those celebrated actors, appears to have mixed with many persons whose names are familiar, and has collected some amusing traits respecting his theatrical comrades. His vicissitudes of fortune too, being at one moment in durance vile, at another "enacting *Julius Cæsar*," or something else; and at a third time, dining with bona fide lords and ladies; his accounts of which are told in a lively though rather flippant manner, afford considerable entertainment. As a specimen of his manner of relating his adventures, as well as of the tricks of the London pick-pockets, we extract the following passage:

‘The following Sunday I was engaged to dine with sir Richard Phillips, at Hampstead, under a promise to act as guide to Dr. Walcot, (Peter Pindar,) whose loss of sight rendered the deputation but too necessary. Mr. Pratt, another gentleman celebrated in the world of letters, gave us the meeting; and the day afforded a literary treat, such as I never before banqueted upon; it was indeed a mental feast, and I record it with pleasure and pride, greater pleasure, and greater pride, than had I feasted with illustrious fools, or banqueted with noble block-heads. Sir Richard abstains from all sorts of animal food, even poultry, game and fish; and is withal very abstemious in his beverage: yet notwithstanding these privations, his countenance exhibits a picture of health nearly bordering upon plethora. Dr. Walcot was in high glee; by the same token, he indulges most liberally in the vice of swearing; independent of this fault, and a fault it is, particularly in a man who stands in no need of such resources; there are those whose conversation would be wholly unnoticed, but from that individual cause; I say, independent of this, Peter Pindar is animated and intelligent; highly liberal in his opinions, and blessed with great suavity of manners. After dinner, Mr. Pratt read excellently well, a manuscript of the doctor’s, full of point and——abuse, I was going to say, but if you please you may substitute the word *truth*.

‘When the time for our departure arrived, there was only one vacant seat in the Hampstead stage, in which I placed the Pindaric bard, and buttoning my coat, prepared for a walk. The evening was fine, though cold; the moon was at the full, and pedestrianism I was ever partial to. ’Tis a mode of travelling that carries with it an air of independence, and whilst heaven continues the use of my legs, I hope and trust it will always have a preference. I had proceeded near half way through Oxford-street, when a decently dressed, but very infirm old woman, in crossing the street, narrowly escaped being run down by a coach; another was advancing very rapidly, when I ran to her assistance, and with all the strength I was master of, dragged her safe to the foot-path. As she appeared faint from alarm, and weak from exertion, I did not immediately leave her, but continued my support a few minutes longer; when strange and unnatural as it may appear, I thought I felt her hand in my coat pocket. I instantly advanced mine in the same direction, and found my apprehensions confirmed; my pocket book was gone, containing, unfortunately and imprudently, all my worldly property, received the day before from Messrs. Taylor and Hessey. As I challenged the old hypocrite with the theft, and was in the act of seizing her, she took her petticoats under her arm, thereby discovering a pair of boots, and turning the corner, scampered down Swallow-street with such expedition, that, although a good footman, I was once nearly losing sight of her; and this must inevitably have been the case, had not Luna, aided by the lamps, rendered it nearly as light as day. The reader will wonder why I did not give the alarm, and by that means procure aid in my pursuit. The fact is, that at the instant such a thought never occurred. I was too much engaged with the one object to mind any other, and as a few moments elapsed between the robbery, and finding myself in Swallow-street, which my gentleman in masquerade likewise left at the very first turn, I was still too intent in pursuit to think of the only means to render it effectual, and it was not, till I found myself losing ground, that I bawled out for the first time “stop thief.” But here the invocation was useless, for there was nobody to stop the thief. The street, as

far as I could see, was empty; doubtless well acquainted with this part of the town, he led me to the identical spot where assistance would be implored in vain, and I was giving up my cause as lost, when his petticoats, much in my favour from the beginning, caught an iron spike, and tripped up his heels. Summoning all my remaining strength, I pounced upon my prey, and now first discovered a man a very few paces behind me. To him I related how affairs stood between me and my prostrate foe; and, announcing himself as a special constable, he willingly entered into my cause. Without more deliberation, I committed the thief into his custody, insisting at the same time, upon my book being restored. This demand not being complied with, I was proceeding in my search, when the truth, the fatal truth, burst upon my astonished mind with a shock that nearly overpowered it, and converted hope into despair. The confederates, for such indeed they were, looked up the street, and down the street; I did the same, though from a different motive, but could only perceive one solitary being, and he at too great a distance to be useful.

‘However, grown desperate from despair, I gave my voice its loudest pitch, and was that instant knocked down by the villain in petticoats, but still my power of articulation remained, and that I exerted so effectually, that the being sent by heaven to my rescue rushed forward, and laid the man *confessed* upon his mother earth, which the other perceiving, took to his heels. By this time I had regained my feet, and explaining the sex of the fugitive, and the loss I had sustained, my champion flew like lightning after him, and when I came up, the sham lady was in safe hands, and without hesitation restored my darling pocket-book, containing the whole property, except a little wife, of S. W. R.

‘After expressing my obligations, this powerful redresser of wrongs consented, at my request, to leave the wretches to their fate; for having redeemed my all, my duty to society, I am sorry to say, was a minor object, and forgotten, the moment my personal dangers were at an end.

‘My deliverer stood about five feet eight inches, strong built, and beautifully proportioned; his face rather handsome, and his address above the common stamp; in short, bating a few points, he so strongly reminded me of Charles Camelford, that I felt an interest in him, independent of the great service he had performed, and requested to know his name: he answered, “*John Gulley!*”

“What! Gulley of Carey-street?”

“The same, sir—where I shall be proud to see you, whenever it suits your convenience.”

‘This circumstance was matter of interesting conversation in Northumberland-street, but I was averse to making the business public, because I attached shame to myself for suffering two such hardened offenders to escape. It is, doubtless, the bounden duty of every individual to prefer the good of society to his own private feelings, and in yielding to mine, I not only committed error, but actual injustice, both against the laws and my fellow creatures, by screening culprits from the former, and turning them loose upon the latter. Besides, it is possible that I may eventually be the cause of bringing them to the gallows, when, had they been taken up for this crime, a milder punishment might have led to repentance, and an amendment of life.’

“The Balance of Comfort” appears to be an attempt to settle the vexata questio among the ladies, whether the state of single

blessedness or that of matrimony is the most to be desired by "a prudent person." There is, as may be supposed, much urged on both sides of the question, and the pros and cons are carried out in a very impartial and business-like manner. As far, however, as we can ascertain, the author decides, like most of those who have attempted to decide it—that both situations have their comforts and inconveniences. She evidently inclines in favour of the un-yoked state, and adduces some very weighty, and we think, conclusive reasons for a pause, at least, previous to exchanging its free condition for the harness and restraints of matrimony. All which, we presume, will produce about the same effect upon young ladies and gentlemen as the lessons their grand mothers have heretofore taught them on the same subject. Mrs. Charlton, the *unwedded* heroine, is made a very respectable and pleasing character; and the vulgar opinion, that unmarried ladies, who have passed a certain age, are like an old-f.-shioned sofa, useful when we are sick, but otherwise an unnecessary piece of lumber—finds no support in these volumes. We consider them as highly entertaining, marked with a greater degree of originality than is usually to be found in novels, and displaying a good deal of talent in the discrimination of character. The advice and reasoning, too, though somewhat common-place, is judicious and sensible; and we can confidently recommend the work to both spinsters and wives as one quite as full of *useful* information as Lalla Rookh or the Corsair.

In the "Knight of St. John," we think Miss Porter has evinced considerable talent and judgment, although the book rather falls off in the second volume. Her style is rich and attractive, and the scene she has chosen for her adventures, and the names she has introduced into them, are pleasing and interesting, as they remind us of the best days of the Italian republics, and of the high-minded men who were connected with them. We think the admirers of romances will be gratified by the perusal of these volumes.

In his present situation at St. Helena, cut off from the rest of "this breathing world," by an immense space of ocean, the waves of which, as Dr. Franklin justly remarks, are like those of time, in the effect they produce, the emperor Napoleon, deprived of his influence over society, and no longer in a situation to benefit or molest mankind, appears to be already considered as in his grave; and his exploits of every description, to have become matter of history. The shadows, clouds, and darkness, which passion and malice have conspired to throw round some of his actions, are rapidly dissipating, and there are few, we believe, of those who most hated him in prosperity, who have not felt the strength of their opinions weakened by some late publications, excepting the Quarterly Reviewers, the violence and foulness of whose abuse of him and of France, are only equalled by their slander of all that is dear to us in our own institutions and firesides. The great causes of the odium which was at one time excited against him were, the execution of the duke D'Enghien, the supposed murder of the English captain Wright, and his conduct towards his Turkish pri-

soners, and his own soldiers, at Jaffa. These affairs we believe to have been represented in their proper light by Mr. Warden in his *Letters*, which we do not doubt are, in substance, correct relations of his conversations with Napoleon; particularly as we find the chief facts corroborated by the statements in one of the last numbers of the *Edinburgh Review*, of the conversations between the emperor and a British nobleman. Much indeed as has been written respecting him, the public curiosity seems to call for more information. We have had *Secret Histories*, *Manucrits venus de St. Helène*, and *Letters* in abundance; some of them palpable forgeries, others well feigned, though manufactured in Europe. Last of all we have the *Letters from the Cape of Good Hope*, which appear to be written by a certain lord C., and addressed to his lady in England. The author would have us believe that he was a fellow passenger with Napoleon in the *Northumberland*; and at St. Helena was frequently in company with him and the members of his family, by which means he obtained access to the great work said to be composing under his direction; and gathered in conversation with his suite considerable information as to the former occurrences of his life. He speaks with all the firmness and plausibility of apparent truth, and yet we think it is not less apparent that the whole work, letters, extracts, and all, was composed in the interior of one of the goodly mansions that decorate Grub-street. There is nothing in the book, in fact, which has not been known to the curious part of the political world ever since the events happened, except a few minute details of names, which might have been obtained from the records or journals of France. We see, besides, in the extracts, nothing of that peculiar, energetic, abrupt, and striking manner which has heretofore characterised the style of the celebrated individual whose exploits they profess to relate. They are dull and vapid, we think; and, upon the whole, we consider the work only redeemed by the tone of candour and liberality with which the author speaks throughout, and by his manly protests against a continuation of the system of confinement and rigour heretofore observed, which, if late advices from St. Helena are to be depended on, bids fair to put a premature end to the life of this great captain.

ART. VI.—*Memoir of Rob Roy Macgregor and some branches of his Family.*—(From Blackwood's *Edinburgh Magazine*.)

[As the whole world is now anxiously expecting the appearance of *Rob Roy*, and his history is nevertheless known to but few, we are happy to present our readers with some account of that extraordinary character, drawn up by a gentleman, long resident in that quarter of the Highlands where many of Rob's exploits were performed. All the anecdotes contained in this article are traditional, and it is believed authentic. It cannot but be interesting to peruse a narrative of those plain facts on which the "*Mighty Unknown*" has doubtless erected a glorious superstructure. *Ed. Edin. Mag.*]

"The eagle he was lord above,

"But Rob was lord below."

Wordsworth.

THOUGH the natives of the Highlands of Scotland had long contemned and resisted the laws of the kingdom, and lived in

a state of proud and turbulent independence, the cruelty and injustice which dictated the proscription of the clan Macgregor, can only be regarded as a wretched picture of that government, and that age, which could sanction an act of such barbarity.

This clan occupied the romantic wilds, and, at that period, the almost inaccessible valleys of Balquhiddar, and the Trosachs, comprehending a portion of the counties of Argyll, Perth, Dumbarton, and Stirling, and appropriately denominated the country of the Macgregors. The stupendous and rugged aspect of their mountains, and the deep retirement of their woods, secured them from the sudden intrusions of other marauding bands, as well as from the immediate cognizance of the law; and though they were not more addicted to depredatory war than the other clans of the Highlands, their unsettled and disorderly habits rendered them the terror of surrounding countries, and, from a supposititious circumstance, drew upon them the vengeance of the state. It was their misfortune to possess an inheritance situated betwixt the countries of two mighty chieftains, each of whom was jealous of their growing importance, and eager for an occasion whereby to deprive them of their lands, and exterminate themselves; and to the influence of the chiefs, Montrose and Argyll, with a weak and credulous monarch, is to be attributed the dreadful severities which long visited this devoted clan.

The peculiar constitution of clanship formed a bond of union, which no privation could tear asunder, nor contention overcome. The obstinate solidity of this compact produced those fierce and desultory forays which so often emerged from the mountains, and spread dismay and misery among the individuals of hostile tribes, from whom various tributes were extorted, or humiliating concessions required.

The clan Gregor, during this state of irregularity, had become a formidable sept in prosecuting all the evils which arose from feudal manners and hereditary antipathies; and from their local situation on the confines of the Highlands, were more closely approximated to the vigilance and infliction of the border military, or the opposition of their southern neighbours.

Among those regions, in former ages, the benefits of agriculture were almost unknown to the inhabitants, who chiefly lived upon animal food; but of this they were often deprived by the rigour of winter, so that the mutual spoliation of cattle became a regular system, especially during the period of the Michaelmas moon, and in some parts was essential to their preservation. The Macgregors pursued this plan in common with other tribes, though not under more aggravating cruelties. But, from their border station, and the dread with which they were always regarded, they readily levied the arbitrary tax of *black-mail*, extorted as the price of their own lenity, and under the promise of protecting those who paid it from the depredations of other plundering parties, from whom they also engaged to recover whatever booty was carried away. This species of warfare was eventually more destructive

than the open contests of armies, and led to that rancorous hostility, and those petty feuds, so disgraceful to the times.

The event which occasioned the merciless decree of *fire and sword* against the clan Gregor, is so well known, that it need not here be narrated. Not only were this race to be rooted out, but their very name was forbidden. They were indiscriminately pursued and massacred wherever they were found, until, by incessant persecution, and subdued by the number of their enemies, they were ultimately driven to despair, and sought refuge among the mountainous parts of Perth and Argyll, inhabiting the dismal cavities of rocks, and the sombre recesses of forests. Even in this state of misery they were not allowed to exist. They were discovered in their fastnesses, and the earl of Argyll, with determined butchery, hunted down the fugitives through moors and woods, till scarcely any other than their children remained alive.

Such general and destructive slaughter appeared, for some time thereafter, to have sated the sanguinary propensity of that nobleman, and a relaxation of oppression seemed to promise the Macgregors a state of tranquillity to which they had long been strangers; but it was only a short lived gleam of hope. Some conciliatory overtures on the part of the Campbells flattered these prospects, and one of them, the laird of Achnabreck, took a friendly charge of the chief of the clan Gregor, a young man of promising parts. They paid a visit to Argyll in his castle of Inveraray, where Macgregor was received with apparent kindness; but after retiring to his bed-chamber at night, he was treacherously laid hold of and carried out of the house. The first object which presented itself to Achnabreck in the morning was the body of his young friend Macgregor hanging on a tree opposite his window. Filled with grief and horror at so base a breach of hospitality, he instantly quitted the mansion, determined on revenge, which he soon had an opportunity of satisfying, by running Argyll through the body.

But those barbarities, so wantonly followed up, were not calculated to restrain the impetuous spirit of a valiant clan, and the descendants of those murdered people ceased not to remember and to avenge their sufferings.

Amidst the calamities of his race, arose Robert Macgregor, Celtically named Roy (red), from his complexion and colour of hair, and as a distinctive appellation among his kindred, a practice which is still followed throughout the Highlands. He was the second son of Donald Macgregor of the family of Glengyle, a lieutenant-colonel in the king's service, by a daughter of Campbell of Glenlyon, and consequently a gentleman from birth. He received an education at that time considered liberal, at least suitable to the sphere of life in which he was to appear. Of strong natural parts, he acquired the necessary but rude accomplishments of the age, and with a degree of native hardihood, favoured by a robust and muscular frame, he wielded the broad-sword with such irresistible dexterity, as few or none of his countrymen could equal. Yet he

was possessed of complacent manners when unruffled by opposition, but he was daring and resolute when danger appeared; and he became no less remarkable for his knowledge of human nature than for the boldness of his achievements.

It was customary in those days, as it is at present, for gentlemen of property, as well as their tenantry, to deal in the trade of grazing and selling of cattle. This business appears to have been carried on by Rob Roy Macgregor to a considerable extent, so that in early life he was not conspicuous for any dashing exploit. Upon his succession to his estate, however, new objects were presented to him, and having laid claim to the authority, with which he was now invested, over some faithful vassals, he readily commanded their unlimited services in the prosecution of his views—in repelling his foes, or in exacting the tax of *black-mail*, which he began to raise over the neighbouring countries. This tributary impost had long been suffered to prevail in the Highlands; and though lawless, and generally oppressive, the usage of many ages had sanctioned the practice, so that it was considered neither unjust nor dishonourable; and from its beneficial effects in securing the forbearance and protection of those to whom it was paid, it was usually submitted to as an indispensable measure, and consisted of money, meal, or cattle, according to agreement. The practice, too, of carrying off the cattle of other clans was still common in those countries; and the followers of Rob Roy were no less guilty of these habits, when necessity, or the unfriendly disposition of other tribes, occasioned dispute; but these predatory excursions were usually undertaken against the Lowland borderers, whom they regarded as a people of another nation, different in manners as in language; and what was not the least motive of attack, they were also more opulent, and less inclined to war.

Whether the exploits of Rob Roy Macgregor, some of which had become notorious, and the fame he acquired as a cunning and enterprising genius, had rendered him more to be conciliated and courted as a friend, than to be considered and held as an enemy with the family of Argyll, the former scourge of his clan; or whether the chief of that house, the second duke of the name, from a conviction of the cruelties and injustice which his ancestors had exercised over the Macgregors, had experienced any reasonable compunction, is not certainly known; but it is unquestionable, that this nobleman not only relaxed from all severities against that people, but became attached in the most friendly manner to Rob.

The harsh enactment of the legislature during the reign of James VI, which declared the suppression and prohibition of their name, still hung over the Macgregors, having been renewed by succeeding monarchs; and though Rob Roy had all along despised such authority, he was at last prevailed upon, with reluctance, to adopt some other appellation, so that he might appear, in one instance at least, to acquiesce in the law. He accordingly, from the amicable terms upon which he stood with the duke of Argyll, now his avowed patron, assumed, by his permission, the name of

Campbell, and relinquished that of Macgregor, though in the country, and among his clan, he was acknowledged by no other. He was, consequently, in a writ dated in 1703, denominated Robert Campbell of Inversnait, his paternal inheritance.

This property extended for some miles along the eastern border of Loch Lomond; but from pecuniary embarrassment, it fell into the hands of the first duke of Montrose. In his cattle-dealing Rob Roy had a partner in whom he placed unbounded confidence; but this person, having on one occasion been intrusted with a considerable sum of money, made a sudden elopement, which so shattered Rob's trading concerns, that he was under the necessity of selling his lands to the duke of Montrose, but conditionally, that they should again revert to himself, providing he could return to the duke the sum he had promised to pay for them. Montrose had paid a great part, but not the whole, of the price agreed upon. Some years having elapsed, Rob Roy found his finances improved, and, wishing to get back his estate, offered to restore the duke the sum he had advanced: but upon some equivocal pretence he would not receive it, and, from Rob's dissolute character, an adjudication of the lands was easily obtained, which deprived him of any future claim. Considering this transaction as unjust on the part of Montrose and his factor, Graham of Orchil, Rob watched his opportunity to make reprisal, the only remaining means in his power, and a future occasion gave him the success he desired. This factor, when collecting his rents, was attended, as a matter of compliment, by several gentlemen of the vicinity, who dined with him. Among those who were present at this time was Rob Roy; but before he came he placed twenty of his men in a wood close by, to wait a fixed signal, and went himself to the house with his piper playing before him. This was at the inn of Chapel-Arroch in Aberfoil. The factor had no suspicion of Rob's purpose, as he laid down his claymore to indicate peace, and partook of the entertainment, during which his piper played some wild pibrochs, the boisterous accompaniment which used to give a zest to every Highland feast.

Rob, in the meantime, observed the factor's motions, and saw that he deposited the money in a portmanteau which lay in the room. Dinner was no sooner over than he ordered his piper to strike up a new tune; and in a few minutes Rob's men surrounded the house;—six of them entered with drawn swords—when Rob, laying hold of his own, desired the factor to deliver him the money which he had collected, and which he said was his due. Resistance was useless; the money was given up, and Rob granted a receipt for it. But as he conceived that the factor was accessory to the infringement of the contract that deprived him of his estate, he resolved to punish him. Accordingly he had him conveyed and placed in an island near the west end of Loch Ketturrin, now rendered conspicuous as the supposed residence of the fair *Ellen, the Lady of the Lake*.

“ ————— the shore around;
’Twas all so close with copsewood bound,
Nor track nor pathway might declare
That human foot frequented there,—
Here, for retreat in dangerous hour,
Some chief had framed a rustic bower.”

In this island was Orchil confined for some weeks; and, when set at liberty, was admonished by Rob Roy no more to collect the rents of that country, which he meant in future to do himself, maintaining, that as the lands originally belonged to the Macgregors, who lost them by attainder, such alienation was an unnatural and illegal deprivation of the right of succeeding generations; and, from this conviction, he was the constant enemy of the Grahams, the Murrays, and the Drummonds, who then claimed, and still inherit, those extensive domains.

Among other coercive measures, which from time to time were adopted to suppress the practices of the Macgregors, was that of planting a garrison in their country at Inversnaid, upon the spot from whence Rob Roy took his title. The immoderate bounds to which the rigorous decrees of government had been carried, not only by its immediate instrument the military, but also by the other clans who surrounded the Macgregors, drove them to such desperation that they held the laws in contempt, as they were wholly precluded from their benefit,—so that nothing appeared too hazardous nor too flagrant for them to perform. This fortress had been set down some time before any sally from it had given annoyance to Macgregor; and though the number of soldiers which it generally contained were no great obstruction in his estimation, yet they were a sort of check upon those small parties which he some seasons sent forth. He therefore determined to intimidate the garrison, or to make the military abandon it. He had previously mentioned his plan, and secured the connivance of a woman of his own clan who served in the fort. Having supplied her with a quantity of Highland whiskey, of which the English soldiery were very fond, she contrived, on an appointed night, to intoxicate the sentinel; and while he lay overcome by the potent dose, she opened the gate, when Rob Roy and his men, who were on the watch, rushed in with loads of combustibles, and set the garrison on fire in different places, and it was with difficulty that the inmates escaped with their lives. Though Rob was suspected to be the incendiary, there was no immediate proof, and the damage was quietly repaired.

The steady adherence of the Highlanders to the expatriated house of Stuart, was so well known, and so much dreaded by every prince who succeeded them on the British throne, that a watchful eye was constantly kept over their motions, and they were constrained to hold all their communings, which related to the affairs of the exiles, in the most secret and clandestine manner.

Some time subsequent to the unsuccessful attempt of the Highland clans under Dundee, at Killcrankie, a great meeting of chieftains took place in Breadalbane, under pretence of hunting the

deer, but in reality for the purpose of ascertaining the sentiments of each other respecting the Stuart cause. Opinions were unanimous; and a bond of faith and mutual support, previously written, was signed. By the negligence of a chieftain to whom this bond was intrusted, it fell into the hands of captain Campbell of Glenlyon, then at Fort-William, who, from his connexion with many whose names were appended, did not immediately disclose the contents; but from the deserved odium which was attached to that person, from having commanded the party who perpetrated the infamous massacre of Glencoe, he was justly despised and execrated even by his nearest friends; and when it was known that a man of such inhuman feelings held this bond, those who signed it were seriously alarmed, and various plans were suggested for recovering it. Rob Roy Macgregor, who was at this clan meeting, had also affixed his name; but on his own account he was indifferent, as he regarded neither king nor government. He was, however, urged by several chiefs, particularly his patron, to exert himself, and if possible to recover the bond. With this view he went to Fort-William in disguise, not with his usual number of attendants, and getting access to captain Campbell, who was a near relation of his own, he discovered that, out of revenge for the contemptuous manner in which the chieftains now treated the captain, he had put the bond into the possession of the governor of the garrison, who was resolved to forward it to the Privy Council; and Rob learning by accident the day on which it was to be sent, took his leave, and went home. The despatch which contained the bond was made up by governor Hill, and sent from Fort-William, escorted by an ensign's command, which in those countries always accompanied the messages of government. On the third day's march, Rob, and fifty of his men, met this party in Glendochart, and ordering them to halt, demanded their despatches. The officer refused; but Rob told him, that he would either have their lives and the despatches together, or the despatches alone. The ferocious looks and appearance of Rob and his men bespoke no irresolution. The packet was given up; and Rob having taken out the bond he wanted, he begged the officer would excuse the delay he had occasioned, and wishing him a good journey, left the military to proceed unmolested. By this manœuvre many chieftains kept on their heads, and the forfeiture of many estates were prevented.

The most inveterate enemy that Rob Roy had to guard against, was the earl of Athol, who had long harassed his clan, and whose machinations were even more alarming than the denunciations of the law. Rob had no doubt given cause for this enmity, for he had frequently ravaged the district of Athol, carried away cattle, and put every man to the sword who attempted resistance; and all this, he said, was to retaliate the cruelties formerly committed upon his ancestors. But he had once nearly paid for his temerity. The earl having sent a party of horse, they unexpectedly came upon him, and seized him in his own house of Monachaltuarach, situat-

ed in Balquhiddar. He was placed on horseback, to be conveyed to Stirling Castle; but in going down a steep defile, he leaped off, ran up a wooded hill, where the horsemen could not follow, and escaped. Athol, on another occasion, sent twenty men from Glenalmond, to lay hold of Macgregor. He saw them approaching, and did not shun them, though he was alone. His uncommon size and strength, the fierceness of his countenance, and the posture of defence in which he placed himself, intimidated them so much, that they durst not go near him. He told them, that he knew what they wanted, but if they did not quietly depart, none of them should return. He desired them to tell their master, that if he sent any more of his pigmy race to disturb him, he would hang them up to feed the eagles.

Feuds and violent conflicts of clans, still continued prevalent, with all the animosity which marked the rude character of the times; and a contest having arisen betwixt the earls of Athol and Perth, Rob Roy was requested to take part with the latter: and though Perth was no favourite with him, he readily agreed to give his assistance, as he would undertake any thing to distress Athol. Having assembled sixty of his men, he marched to Drummond Castle with seven pipers playing. The Atholmen were already on the banks of the Earn, and the Drummonds and Macgregors marched to attack them; but they no sooner recognised the Macgregors, whom they considered as demons, than they fled from the field, and were pursued to the precincts of their own country.

Although Rob Roy Macgregor, from his great personal prowess, and the dauntless energy of his mind, which, in the most trying and difficult emergencies, never forsook him, was the dread of every country where his name was known, the urbanity and kindness of his manners to his inferiors, gained him the good will and services of his whole clan, who were always ready to submit to any privation, or to undergo any hardship to protect him from the multitude of enemies who sought his destruction; and one or two, among many instances of their attachment, may here be mentioned:—A debt, to a pretty large amount, which he had long owed to a person in the Lowlands, could never be recovered, because no one would undertake to execute diligence against him. At length a messenger at Edinburgh appeared, who pledged himself, that with six men, he would go through the whole Highlands, and would apprehend Rob Roy, or any man of his name. The fellow was stout and resolute. He was offered a handsome sum, if he would bring Rob Roy Macgregor to the jail of Stirling, and was allowed men of his own choice. He accordingly equipped himself and his men, with swords, sticks, and every thing fitted for the expedition; and having arrived at the only public house then in Balquhiddar, he inquired the way to Rob's house. This party were at once known to be strangers, and the landlord coming to learn their business, he sent notice of it to his good friend Rob, and advised them not to go farther, lest they might come to repent

of their folly; but the advice was disregarded, and they went forward. The party waited at some distance from the house, and the messenger himself went to reconnoitre.

Having announced himself as a stranger who had lost his way, he was politely shown by Rob into a large room, where

“ ———All around, the walls to grace,
Hung trophies of the fight or chase;
A target there, a bugle here,
A battle axe, a hunting spear,
And broad-swords, bows and arrows store,
With the tusked trophies of the boar,”

which astonished him so much, that he felt as if he had got into a cavern of the infernal regions; but when the room door was shut, and he saw hanging behind it a stuffed figure of a man, intentionally placed there, his terror increased to such a degree, that he screamed out, and asked if it was a dead man? To which Rob coolly answered, that it was a rascal of a messenger who had come to the house the night before; that he had killed him, and had not got time to have him buried. Fear now wholly overcame the messenger, and he could scarcely articulate a benediction for his soul, when he fainted and fell upon the floor. Four of Rob's men carried him out of the house, and, in order to complete the joke, and at the same time to restore the man to life, they took him to the river just by, and tossed him in, allowing him to get out the best way he could himself. His companions, in the mean time, seeing all that happened, and supposing he had been killed, took to their heels; but the whole glen having now been alarmed, met the fugitives in every direction, and gave every one of them such a complete ducking, that they had reason all their lives to remember the lake and river of Balquhiddar.

These people were no sooner out of the hands of the Macgregors, than they made a speedy retreat to Stirling, not taking time on the road to dry their clothes, lest a repetition of their treatment should take place; and upon their arrival there, they represented the usage they had received, with exaggerated accounts of the assassinations and cruelties of the Macgregors, magnifying their own wonderful escape, and prowess in having killed several of the clan, so that the story was reported to the commander of the castle, who ordered a company of soldiers to march into the Highlands, to lay hold of Rob Roy Macgregor. A party of Macgregors, who were returning with some booty which they had acquired along the banks of the Forth, descried the military on their way to Callander, and, suspecting their intention, hastened to acquaint Rob Roy of what they saw. In a few hours the whole country was warned of the approaching danger, and guards were placed at different stations to give notice of the movements of the soldiers. All the men within several miles were prepared to repel this invasion, in case it was to lay waste the country, which had often been done before; but the military had no other orders than to seize Rob Roy, who considered it more prudent to take refuge in the hills,

than openly to give the military battle, when they meant no other hostility.

After a fruitless search for many days, the soldiers, unaccustomed to the fatigue of climbing mountains, and scrambling over rocks, and through woods, took shelter at night in an empty house, which they furnished with heath for beds; and the Macgregors, unwilling that they should leave their country without some lasting remembrance of them, set fire to the house, which speedily dislodged the soldiers. In the confusion many of them were hurt, a number lost their arms, and one man was killed by the accidental discharge of a musket. The military party, thus thrown into confusion, broke down by fatigue, and almost famished for want of provisions, which they could not procure, withdrew from the country of the Macgregors, happy that they had escaped so well.

The tribute of *black mail*, already noticed, extended under Rob Roy's system, to all classes of people, to inferior proprietors, and to every description of tenantry, but the more powerful chieftains, though they at times considered Rob as an useful auxiliary and though their property was often subjected to spoliation, would seldom consent to that compulsory regulation, as being too degrading to that consequence which they were anxious to maintain. Rob did certainly, as occasion required, exact what he conceived to be his due in this way, with some severity; but he often received the tax as a voluntary oblation. Of this last description was an annual payment made to him by Campbell of Abruchil; but this proprietor having omitted to pay Rob for some years, he at last went to his castle with an armed party, to demand the arrears due to him. Having knocked at the gate, leaving his men at some distance, he desired a conversation with the laird; but he was told that several great men were at dinner with him, and that no stranger could be admitted. "Then tell him," said he, "that Rob Roy Macgregor is at his door, and must see him, if the king should be dining with him." The porter returned, and told Rob that his master knew nothing of such a person, and desired him to depart. Rob immediately applied to his mouth a large horn that hung by his side, from which there issued a sound that appalled the castle guard, shook the building to its base, and astonished Abruchil and his guests, who quickly left the dining-table. In an instant Rob's men were by his side, and he ordered them to drive away all the cattle they found on the land; but the laird came hastily to the gate, apologized for the rudeness of the porter to his good friend Rob Roy Macgregor, took him into the castle, paid him his demand, and they parted good friends.

ART. VII.—*Life of Curran, the Irish Orator.*

[We perceive in the British journals, that a biography of the late distinguished orator and patriot, Mr. Curran, that ornament of his country, and honour to the Irish bar, is expected from the pen of Mr. Phillips, an eminent barrister, whose eloquence has found numerous admirers in this, as well as his native country, and who is peculiarly qualified for the undertaking, by a similarity of pursuit, an association of excellence, and of fame, in the courts where they practised. The merits of Curran have been extensively canvassed amongst us, and the publication of his "Speeches" has been read with avidity in every district, we believe, of the union. Much interest will, no doubt, be excited by the expectation of a work that promises to shed new light upon the talent of the rhetorician, and that will trace the history of a mind, in its progress to eminence, by those arduous steps which mark the difficulty of the ascent. In the mean time, we believe the following will not be uninteresting to our readers. *Ed. An. Mag.*]

OCTOBER 14, Died at Amelia-place, Brompton, aged nearly 70, the right hon. John Philpot Curran. His last moments were so tranquil, that those around him could scarcely mark the moment of expiration.

Mr. Curran was a native of the county of Cork. His parents had nothing to bestow upon him but the rudiments of classical education, which he completed in Trinity college, Dublin. Shortly after he was called to the bar he married Miss O'Dell, a lady of respectable family but slender fortune, with whom he became acquainted on circuit. His splendid talents soon brought him into notice in his profession, in which he obtained a silk gown in the administration of the duke of Portland. In 1784 we find him seated in the house of commons of Ireland, and seconding with much sportive humour, every effort of the popular party for the emancipation of the country, and the establishment of its commercial freedom and political independence. During the arduous and interesting period in which Mr. Fitzgibbon (late earl of Clare) filled the office of attorney-general, he was one of the leading men in opposition, and of course came into frequent collision with that lawyer. The high tone of defence upon legal constitutional questions, with which the attorney general endeavoured to bear down his opponents, was more frequently ridiculed by the wit, than combated by the arguments, of Mr. C. If, in this mode of contest, he did not always repel the blow, he at least evaded its force; and although he could not on every occasion, boast of victory, he at least escaped defeat. Of one of these contests the issue was more serious—it produced a duel, but which was attended with no injury to either party: this happened in the administration of the late duke of Portland. The dutchess of Rutland and a large party of her female friends were present in the gallery during the discussion; and the irritation excited by the keenness of Mr. Curran's wit, it may be easily supposed, was not allayed by such a presence. As a lawyer, he was not particularly distinguished by the extent of his knowledge, or the depth of his researches: he stood in this respect only on an equality with his competitors; it was as an advocate that he outstripped them; and no advocate ever made the cause of his client so much his own. So powerful and persuasive were the allurements of his eloquence, that a Dublin jury became

afraid of listening to his address, and went into the box upon their guard against his seductive powers. Some of his speeches in defence of many of his unfortunate countrymen have been published, and afford a satisfactory specimen of his eloquence. Next to his eloquence, his acuteness in examining a witness challenged public admiration. He was considered shrewder than lord Erskine, and more polished than sir W. Garrow. His parliamentary speeches seldom possessed the excellence which marked his professional eloquence; they were desultory and irregular, lively bursts and sketches, conceived more in the wantonness of fancy, than the serious exertions of his mind; keen strokes of satire, flying shafts of wit, instead of profound reasoning. His talents and his attachment to the popular cause, rendered him, in the viceroyalty of the duke of Bedford, a subject of care, next to the late lamented Mr. Ponsonby. While the latter was made lord chancellor, an arrangement with the late sir Michael Smith, then master of the rolls, by which Mr. Curran was appointed in his place; a situation in which he particularly distinguished himself for clear and correct decisions: this happened in the year 1806. His friends thought that his interests could not be better consulted, but he was of a different opinion: it did not harmonize with the particular course of his legal knowledge and practice; and he would have preferred the office of attorney-general, which he thought would have led to the chief seat in the court of King's Bench. He lived to be convinced of the weakness of this speculation. It served, however, to destroy some old friendships, and afford much uneasiness to his latter days. Mr. Curran enjoyed a pension of 3000 pounds a year, settled upon him on his resigning his office, in 1815, in favour of sir Wm. M'Mahon, the present master of the rolls in Ireland. His oratory was of a peculiar species; it was completely *sui generis*—ever the sudden burst of strong and passionate feelings, which seemed to rise in proportion as the grand conceptions of his mind became more and more illuminated by the coruscations of his wit—the lightning flashes of a vigorous and highly poetical imagination.

[*Gent. Mag.*

Mr. Curran was one of those characters which the lover of human nature, and of its intellectual capacities delights to contemplate. He rose from nothing; derived no aid from rank and fortune; and ascended by his own energies to an eminence, which throws rank and fortune into comparative scorn. He was the great ornament in his time of the Irish bar, and in forensic eloquence has certainly never been exceeded in modern times. His rhetoric was the pure emanation of his spirit, a warming and lighting-up of the soul, that poured conviction and astonishment on his hearers! It flashed in his eye, and revelled in the melodious and powerful accents of his voice. His wit was not less exuberant than his imagination; and it was the peculiarity of Mr. Curran's wit, that even when it took the form of a play on words, it acquired dignity from the vein of imagery that accompanied it. Every jest was a metaphor. But

the great charm and power of Mr. Curran's eloquence lay in its fervour. It was by this that he animated his friends, and appalled his enemies; and the admiration which he thus excited was the child and brother of love. It was impossible that a man whose mind was thus constituted, should not be a patriot; and certainly no man in modern times ever loved his country more passionately, than Mr. Curran loved Ireland. The same sincere and earnest heart attended Mr. Curran through all his attachments. He was constant and unalterable in his preferences and friendship, public and private. He began his political life in the connexion of Mr. Fox, and never swerved from it for a moment. Prosperity and adversity made no alteration in him. If he ever differed from that great man, it was that he sometimes thought his native country of Ireland was not sufficiently considered. There was nothing fickle or wavering in Mr. Curran's election of mind. The man that, from an enlightened judgment, and a true inspiration of feeling, he chose, he never cooled towards, and never descried. [*Month. Mag.*]

ART. VIII.—*An estimate of the literary character of Francis Jeffrey, Esq.*—(From the Monthly Magazine.)

FEW writers of the present time occupy a larger share of the attention of literary men than Mr. Jeffrey. He is the editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, and author of some of the best papers in that popular journal; and it is alleged that few critics have exposed the faults and deficiencies of the candidates for literary distinction with less indulgence and more presumption. Many who have smarted under the lash of his ridicule regard him with indignation, while they endeavour to persuade themselves that he is only worthy of their contempt. It is to be hoped, however, that, among the vast number who have felt the impartial malice of his pen, there may be some who will acknowledge, although he is always severe, that he has been sometimes just—but never in their own particular case. It would indeed be folly to deny the talents and merits of a writer who has so essentially contributed to establish the reputation of the *Edinburgh Review*.

It must be conceded to the exasperated victims against whom he has so bitterly directed "the quips and scorn of the time," that an author who is only known as a critic can assert but a negative claim to distinction; for it is easier to point out the faults of the noblest work of art than to execute the meanest. Mr. Jeffrey must not be allowed to imagine himself superior in genius to any of the authors whom he has reviewed, merely because he has successfully made them objects of mirth or derision: his merits lie in other qualifications than the glibness of his satire; for, with every allowance that may be granted to the invidiousness of cotemporaries, it cannot be denied that there is a strong basis of good sense in his strictures, of which the pungent and sparkling acrimony of his manner is the flavour and effervescence. He often errs in estimating the general abilities of the writers whom he reviews, and allows his distaste to their works to be improperly directed against

themselves; assuming, in this way, a privilege of censuring, which is not permitted in good society, and is never exercised without exciting feelings of resentment, destructive of the quiet reciprocities of social intercourse. His taste is sometimes capricious, and is evidently more under the influence of the moment than regulated by settled principles; but, upon the whole, a spirit of justice may be discovered in his most merciless animadversions. Sometimes he has released his victims from the rack, when it might have been thought that he intended to inflict a capital punishment: at others he has gamboled to the last; and, with true feline cruelty, only ended their misery when he was tired of tormenting them. But we are acquainted with no writer who more youthfully states his own taste and predilections; and, if there is some degree of conceit in his ingenuousness, it must be allowed that, when he advocates the principles of those opinions in which his judgment is settled and matured, he does it with a manliness that has nothing superior in the literature of any age or country.

It has been objected to Mr. Jeffrey's papers, and indeed to his journal, that the want of circumstantial and scientific knowledge is but ill supplied by theoretical ingenuity. It cannot, however, be denied that, on a great variety of subjects, he has manifested much ability and information. He may not appear always a profound scholar, but he is uniformly an accomplished gentleman. Some of his *belle-lettres* articles are among the best-written dissertations in the English language; especially those in which a vein of historical illustration serves to develop the particular and relative merits of the author under consideration.

But a light and sketchy outline is the character of his style. His canvass is seldom filled; and, if he occasionally finishes a head with delicacy and effect, he neglects the extremities, and often substitutes, for the hands and feet, the idle flourishes of a free and rapid pencil. In his manner there is frequently much elegance, sometimes great beauty, but always a large expanse of loose and careless writing. Conceited and dainty expressions may be here and there discovered; they are, however, more of the nature of freckles than of moles, and we suspect are sometimes esteemed as beauties. His wit may be described as the antithesis of affectation. A sharp natural acid, that requires to be mixed with the nauseous alkali of folly in others, to produce that brisk and wholesome corrective which has become so fashionable as to be almost necessary to the sickly appetite of the age.

Mr. Jeffrey has without question more admirers than enemies; the latter are only to be found among the small class who subject themselves to his jurisdiction, while the former are spread throughout the whole commonality of readers. But he has no disciples. He has too much practical sense ever to become the founder of a sect; for it is not in the nature of that quality to inspire enthusiasm, or to allow it to be felt. His head and heart are made up of household stuff, and seem to have so little affinity for any thing romantic, that we are inclined to think even his personal manners must

have many angular points towards those who are less earnest to be always instructive. The cast of his mind seems to be much more akin to that of the man of business than of the author; but he oftener expresses himself with the bilious irritability of the one, than the hearty urbanity of the other; he is, in fact, neither a man of the world nor a man of genius, but belongs to that dubious class who are regarded with indulgence by the wise, while they are lauded by the weak and condemned only by the foolish. He is an author admirably suited to the occasional topics of his own day; but, when time shall have obliterated those associations in the public mind, to which he so felicitously refers, and draws from them so many apt and amusing illustrations, his style will lose much of its perspicuity, and a great deal of its life and interest. A critic, in fact, is something like a player; his talents are brought out by the ideas of others, and his merits can only be appreciated by comparing his efforts with those of his cotemporaries. Mr. Jeffrey is clever but not great; eloquent without being impressive; accomplished, but not profound. His main fault belongs more to the man than the author—it is in presuming to be the censor of private manners, where the clear and obvious line of his duty (as pointed out both by the consciousness of his own petulance, and the nature of the task he has assumed,) is merely to review the merits and defects of published books. Latterly, however, he has more modestly adhered to his vocation;—"and, where there is shame," as Dr. Johnson says, "there may yet be virtue."

ART. IX.—*Memoir of the Hon. Henry Erskine.*—(From the Gentleman's Magazine.)

OCTOBER 8. Died, at his seat at Ammondell, the hon. Henry Erskine. Thus at nearly the same moment the former great leader and ornament of the Scots' bar, as well as that of the Irish, viz. the Rt. Hon. J. P. Curran, has paid the debt of nature. Mr. Henry Erskine was long the dean of faculty, to which he was raised by his brethren from their respect for the superiority of his talents, and his uniform maintenance of the dignity and independence of the bar. On the return of the Whigs to office, he was appointed Lord Advocate of Scotland, at the same time that his brother was made Lord Chancellor of Great Britain. His devotion to the cause of civil and religious liberty was ardent and sincere. He was inflexible only in liberal opinions; in all the relations of private life he was most placable and conciliatory. It was peculiarly honourable to the illustrious family of Buchan, that at one and the same time, and for many years, the two brothers of the noble earl should be the universal leaders of the English and Scottish bars; both equally eminent, not only for the ardour with which they maintained the privileges, and guarded the lives, liberties, and properties, of their fellow citizens, but also for the brilliant wit, perfect integrity, and irresistible persuasion, of their professional exertions. The conversational powers of Mr. Henry

Erskine were of the first order—prompt, gentle and luminous; his flashes of wit irradiated every countenance, while his amenity left no sting behind. His epigrams and *bon mots* were innumerable, many of them are on record; and we trust that the elegant effusions of his muse, and his *impromptus* at table, will be collected by the biographer of his honourable life.

[The following admired tribute to the memory of the deceased, is from the pen of F. Jeffery esq. Editor of the Edinburgh Review.]

Mr. Erskine was called to the Scottish bar, of which he was long the brightest ornament, in the year 1768, and was for several years dean of the faculty of advocates: he was twice appointed lord advocate, in 1782 and in 1806, under the Rockingham and the Grenville administrations. During the years 1806 and 1807, he sat in parliament for the Dunbar and Dumfries districts of boroughs.

In his long and splendid career at the bar, Mr. Erskine was distinguished not only by the peculiar brilliancy of his wit, and the gracefulness, ease, and vivacity of his eloquence, but by the still rarer power of keeping those seducing qualities in perfect subordination to his judgment. By their assistance he could not only make the most repulsive subjects agreeable, but the most abstruse easy and intelligible. In his profession, indeed, all his wit was argument, and each of his delightful illustrations a material step in his reasonings. To himself it seemed always as if they were recommended rather for their use than their beauty. And unquestionably they often enabled him to state a fine argument, or a nice distinction, not only in a more striking and pleasing way, but actually with greater precision than could have been attained by the severer forms of reasoning.

In this extraordinary talent, as well as in the charming facility of his eloquence, and the constant radiance of good humour and gayety which encircled his manner in debate, he had no rival in his own times, and has yet had no successor. That part of eloquence is now mute—that honour in abeyance.

As a politician he was eminently distinguished for the two great virtues of inflexible steadiness to his principles, and invariable gentleness and urbanity in his manner of asserting them. Such, indeed, was the habitual sweetness of his temper, and the fascination of his manners, that though placed by his rank and talent in the obnoxious station of a leader of opposition at a period when political animosities were carried to a lamentable height, no individual, it is believed, was ever known to speak or to think of him with any thing approaching to personal hostility. In return, it may be said, with equal correctness, that though baffled in some of his pursuits, and not quite handsomely disappointed of some of the honours to which his claim was universally admitted, he never allowed the slightest shade of discontent to rest upon his mind, nor the least drop of bitterness to mingle with his blood. He was so utterly incapable of rancour, that even the rancorous felt that he ought not to be made its victim.

He possessed, in an eminent degree, that deep sense of revealed religion, and that zealous attachment to the Presbyterian establishment, which had long been hereditary in his family. His habits were always strictly moral and temperate, and in the latter part of his life even abstemious. Though the life and the ornament of every society into which he entered, he was always most happy and most delightful at home, where the buoyancy of his spirits and the kindness of his heart found all that they required of exercise or enjoyment; and though without taste for expensive pleasures in his own person, he was ever most indulgent and munificent to his children, and a liberal benefactor to all who depended on his bounty.

He finally retired from the exercise of that profession, the highest honours of which he had at least *deserved*, about the year 1812, and spent the remainder of his days in domestic retirement at that beautiful villa which had been formed by his own taste, and in the improvement and adornment of which he found his latest occupation. Passing, then, at once from all the bustle and excitement of a public life to a scene of comparative inactivity, he never felt one moment of ennui or dejection, but retained unimpaired, till within a day or two of his death, not only all his intellectual activity and social affections, but, when not under the immediate affliction of a painful and incurable disease, all that gayety of spirit, and all that playful and kindly sympathy with innocent enjoyment, which made him the idol of the young, and the object of cordial attachment and unenvying admiration to his friends of all ages.

ART. X.---*A View of the Cultivation of Fruit Trees, and the Management of Orchards and Cider; with accurate descriptions of the most estimable varieties of Native and Foreign Apples, Pears, Peaches, Plums, and Cherries, cultivated in the middle states of America; illustrated by cuts of two hundred kinds of Fruits of the natural size; intended to explain some of the errors which exist relative to the origin, popular names, and character of many of our fruits; to identify them by accurate descriptions of their properties, and correct delineations of the full size and natural formation of each variety; and to exhibit a system of practice adapted to our climate, in the successive stages of A Nursery, Orchard, and Cider Establishment. By William Coxe, Esq., of Burlington, New Jersey. Philadelphia. M. Carey & Son. 1 vol. 8vo.*

THIS is a book on a very important subject in this country, not compiled but composed by a practical man, well acquainted with the subject by the perusal of the best works that have been written on it, and still better from the results of his own experience. Mr. Coxe's nursery at Burlington, in New Jersey, has, to our knowledge, had the reputation for these thirty years of being among the best, if not the best, in the United States, and it has not lost the reputation it deservedly acquired. Condensed information, from a gentleman of such long experience, will be duly appreciated by the public.

The work treats on the following subjects.—Introductory Observations. Chap. I. Of the fitness of the climate of the United States for the cultivation of the apple. II. On the management of a Fruit Nursery. III. On ingrafting large trees. IV. On stocks. V. On the propagation of new varieties. VI. On the duration of particular varieties. VII. On the sap. VIII. On inoculating or budding. IX. On the situation of orchards. X. On the planting and cultivation of orchards. XI. On the pruning of orchards. XII. Of the caterpillar. XIII. Experiments on orchards to ascertain the best mode of planting and cultivating. XIV. On the properties and management of cider. XV. Of the concentration of cider by frost. XVI. On the nature and management of crab cider. XVII. Of Perry. XVIII. On fining cider. XIX. Of the buildings and machinery connected with a cider establishment. XX. Of distilleries of spirit from cider. XXI. Of stumming and cleaning casks. XXII. Of vinegar. XXIII. Of apples. XXIV. Of pears. XXV. The quince. XXVI. Peaches. XXVII. Plums. XXVIII. Apricots. XXIX. Nectarines. XXX. Cherries. General index. Such are the subjects treated on; and they are discussed briefly, without unnecessary details, or any pretension to style beyond neatness, correctness, and precision.

As an example of the plain, common-sense character of the book, we extract his chapter

‘ On Pruning of Orchards. There is no branch of the management of orchards less understood, or more unskilfully performed, than the operation of pruning: a belief of its necessity is so general, that even the most careless will seldom omit it—such, however, is the want of skill in many of the operators, that total neglect would be less prejudicial, than their performance of it. If judiciously done, pruning promotes health and early fruitfulness: and will continue a tree in vigour, long after the common period of its duration. Nothing has contributed more to the imperfect knowledge of this operation, than the wordy and unintelligible systems which have been published respecting it: in a mere practical system, it is unnecessary to lay much stress on wood branches and fruit branches; which, however well understood by an observing intelligent gardener, can scarcely be comprehended by the labourer, employed in the business of pruning an orchard—from the rapidity of vegetation, which is generally ascribed to the nature of our climate, excessive pruning is very apt to generate an infinite number of suckers from the limbs of apple trees; which, if suffered to grow, are more injurious to the production of fruit than the woody branches which are removed: our great heat, and dry atmosphere, render close pruning less necessary here than in England, whence we derive most of our instructions on this point. A good general rule is, never to shorten the branches, unless to improve the figure of the tree; and then to take them off at the separation, very close, so that the wound may heal well and soon: the branches should shoot as much as possible in increasing distances, as they proceed from the common centre, inclining a little upwards, by which means the sap will be more evenly impelled, and better distributed: the ranges should not approach too near to each other; for the admission of the rays of the sun is necessary to the production and perfect maturity of fine flavoured fruit—in cutting off a branch, it should be

done as close as possible, never leaving a stump, for the bark cannot grow over it, and disease in the wood will inevitably follow. If the wound produced by the separation be very large, cover it with tar or thick paint; if small, fresh cow dung will be the best plaister. I have healed very large wounds from the gnawing of calves, horses, and sheep, by a liberal application of this plaister, secured by a bandage of paper or linen.

‘When trees are much pruned, they are apt to throw out numerous suckers from the boughs in the following summer; these should be rubbed off when they first appear, or they may easily be broken off while young and brittle—cutting is apt to increase their number. Trees differ much in their form, and require very different treatment in pruning; it may not be necessary in our warm climate to trim quite so close as in England, but great care should be observed to take off every limb which crosses another, or is likely so to do at a future time: those who can conveniently do it, will find a benefit from forming the heads of their trees in the nursery, the year before they remove them---when transplanted, they will thrive more rapidly from not having been pruned at the time of removal, which in some measure exhausts and weakens the tree: I have been latterly in the habit of giving the principal pruning to my orchards, after they have been planted out about five or six years; their growth, with proper cultivation, is then so vigorous as to permit any natural defects in their forms to be corrected with safety, by free pruning, and forming their branches: the peculiarity of growth which characterizes each kind is then visible, and uniformity of shape may be more easily attained.

‘Apple trees should be so formed as to allow a man and horse to pass under them in ploughing; this elevation of the branches, while it protects them from cattle, opens the ground to the salutary influence of the sun, on the crops of grain and grass

‘No error is more universal, than an anxiety for early productiveness in an orchard; it is generally obtained at the expense of much eventual profit, and by a great diminution of the size and vigour of the trees; believing early fecundity to be injurious to the vigour and perfection of plants, I am always attentive to pluck from the trees these evidences of early maturity, in the first stages of their existence.

‘It was a common practice, some years since, to apply Mr. Forsyth’s celebrated composition to large wounds produced by pruning: that novelty, like many others, had its day among us; and has finally lost its popularity, from a general belief of its inefficacy. Mr. Forsyth at a later period, announced, as a new discovery, what had been long known in this part of our country; that an application of cow dung and urine was more efficacious in healing the wounds of trees than his plaister, even in the moist climate of England. In America, our winter frosts decompose it, and our summer heats dry it up so completely, as to render it useless for the purposes intended.’

The experiments on orchards, page 45, seem decisive to show, the value of cultivating the soil between the trees—the superiority of compost over dung, which harbours field-mice, destructive to the plants—and the inferiority of the sites of old orchards for new plantations.

In his directions for the management of cider, we do not find any notice of the practice of some cider-makers in Herefordshire, in England, who do not permit their cider to ferment at all. It may be

worth relating that the best cider we ever tasted, was made from very high flavoured juicy apples, fit for the table. The juice when pressed was thin; it was early in the season; one gallon of old apple whiskey, well distilled, was added in the proportion of about thirty gallons of the *recently* pressed juice. It was then permitted to ferment in the usual way; the fermentation went on very slowly, though early in the season. It was racked twice, and bottled; the corks tied down; at the end of two years it was a very sparkling, high flavoured cider, much superior to what is usually drank. It may be worth while also to mention, that this experiment was made in the back country of Pennsylvania, where bottles were not easy to be procured. Several dozen of quart bottles were ordered from a common country potter, made of common earthen ware: they were so made; and, as was expected, they were fragile, porous, with all the faults of the common earthen ware of a country place. A bargain was made to have them burnt over again with more fuel and more time than was usually employed in the kiln for common ware. These soft, porous, earthen-ware bottles, came out of the kiln *stone ware*; they were used for the cider in question: they have since been used for oil of vitriol and for mercury. By repeated experiments we know, that almost any kind of the common cheap earthen ware may be made to strike fire with steel, and be converted into stone ware, by being burnt over again, with a sufficient heat. This hint may be useful to those who live at a distance from large towns, especially the makers of cider. When such bottles are used, as the aperture of the necks may not be very correctly made, the bottles should be corked, the corks cut off even with the top of the neck, then wiped very dry, and dipped in a hot mixture of three parts of wax, and one part pitch or rosin; then tied down while the mixture is yet warm.

It does not appear that Mr. Coxe, although possessed of a plantation of the *Stire* apple, so celebrated for the strength of the cider made from it in England, has made any of the cider here: he has given no observations on the *Stire* cider.

Perry. The directions concerning perry are very brief. Indeed there are no pears fit for perry grown in America, that we know of. They are all pears raised for the table. In England, it is a liquor superior to the best cider, and little inferior to champagne. The whiskey made from the perry of this country, is superior to that made from apples.

There are four fruits not cultivated in America for vinous liquors, which furnish wines of the very first quality: these are, 1, *pears*, fit for perry; which should, when racked, have a small proportion of fine brandy, or perry-whiskey mixed with it, and be kept for three or four years in bottles. 2dly, the *quince*. 3dly, the *gooseberry*, which makes a champagne wine, differing from the real champagne, only, in being much superior. Dr. Clark, the traveller, is well founded in all his remarks on champagne. 4thly, the *fox-grape*, which yields a strong rich wine, little inferior to *Madeira*.

On fining cider. We doubt about isinglass being the most eligible fining; or that it is the better because it separates the tannin. Isinglass will dissolve and remain dissolved in the liquor.

Of spirit distilled from cider. A worse liquor as a beverage cannot be used. Of spirits, the spirits from grain are beyond comparison less deleterious than those from fruits.

Of vinegar. The information is very imperfect. Ere long, the pyroligneous acid will go far to supply its place. A family vinegar cask should always be kept in use for the same purpose. The Germans of the back parts of Pennsylvania draw a gallon of vinegar out of their cask, and then put in a gallon of good cider; they have thus, always vinegar of good quality. The country people want to be reminded that vinegar is made by exposure to *air*. The liquor should be repeatedly drawn off and returned into the cask.

From page 100 to page 245, is occupied with descriptions and wooden cuts of the various kinds of apples, pears, peaches, apricots, and nectarines. The prints exhibit the fruit of the natural size. The kinds proper for different purposes, and the seasons when they ripen are noticed. Too little is known here of the nectarine; beyond all comparison the first-flavoured of the clingstones. Somehow, this fruit, so exquisite in England, and on the continent of Europe, has not succeeded here. We believe it would succeed if trained against a wall, sheltered from the north and north-west winds, and judiciously (not over) pruned. We may safely recommend this book, as containing much information, delivered with all the marks of experience and good sense. C.

ART. XI—*The Battle of Bunker's Hill, near Boston, 17th of June, 1775.*

[The Engraving in our present number is taken from a sketch found in the captured baggage of an officer of the British army in 1775. It has been submitted to many respectable inhabitants of Boston, Charlestown and the vicinity, some engaged in the action of that memorable day, others spectators of it: all of whom concur in pronouncing it to be correct, with trivial exceptions. Its general accuracy has been approved by governor Brooks, general Dearborn, Dr. Dexter, the Hon. Mr. Winthrop, and Mr. Prescott, son of the colonel Prescott who first marked out the entrenchments in the night of the 16th of June, which he afterwards contributed so ably to defend. Dr. Bartlett of Charlestown, on examining the plan, pointed out the station of a man-of-war, the Somerset, 74, to be directly between Boston and Charlestown whence she could batter the American redoubt.

As a fac-simile, it has been deemed necessary, in order to preserve the genuine stamp of authenticity, to present it entire and unvaried in the expression, to our readers. At this day, the epithet of "Rebels" can but excite a smile. The phraseology of the original has therefore been allowed to remain unaltered.]

Ed. Anal. Mag.

THE traveller who visits Boston, can scarcely fail to associate in his mind the field of battle where the early heroes of the revolution first established the character of that event, marked as it was by undaunted resolution, the offspring of a determined purpose. From the State House of Massachusetts, conspicuously seated on an eminence, the eye ranges over Charlestown, a considerable town that now adjoins Boston by a spacious bridge. The

patriot will scarcely content himself with a remote view of this impressive scene, designated by a monument to the memory of general Warren, who fell distinguished on that occasion. At a distance of about two miles, some hills are discerned, viz. Prospect Hill, Plowed Hill, Breed's Hill, and Bunker's Hill. As you advance on the road in rear of the navy yard at Charlestown, Breed's Hill rears its venerable brow on the left. Here it was, that a detachment from the American army of one thousand men under colonel Prescott* began at twelve o'clock in the night of the 16th of June 1775, to throw up some works extending from Charlestown to the river which separates that town from Boston. They proceeded with such secrecy and despatch that the officers of a ship of war then in the river, expressed their astonishment when in the morning they saw entrenchments reared and fortified in the space of a few hours, where, from the contiguity of the situation, they least expected the Americans would look them in the face.

The alarm being immediately given, orders were issued that a continual fire should be kept playing upon the unfinished works, from the ships, the floating batteries in the river, and Copp's Hill, a fortified post of the British in Boston, directly opposite the American redoubt; but, with extraordinary perseverance, the Americans continued to strengthen their works, not returning a shot till noon, when a number of boats and barges, filled with regular troops from Boston approached Charlestown. The day was exceedingly hot. Ten companies of grenadiers, ten of light infantry, with a proportion of field artillery landed at Moreton's Point, the whole commanded by major-general Howe and brigadier-general Pigot. These troops having formed, remained in that position till joined by a second detachment of light infantry and grenadier companies, the 47th regiment, and a battalion of marines, making in the whole near three-thousand men.

The Americans had not a rifleman amongst them, not one being yet arrived from the southward, nor had they any rifle pieces; they had but common muskets, and these mostly without bayonets; but then they were almost all marksmen, being accustomed to sporting of one kind or other from their youth. A reinforcement of Massachusetts troops was posted in a redoubt, and in part of the breast-work nearest it. The left of the breast-work, and the open ground stretching beyond its point to the water side, along which time did not admit of accomplishing the work, were occupied partly by the Massachusetts, and partly by the Connecticut men under captain Nolton of Ashford, and the New Hampshire

* When future generations shall inquire, where are the men who gained the highest prize of glory in the arduous contest which ushered in our nation's birth, upon Prescott and his companions in arms will the eye of History beam. The military Annals of the world rarely furnish an achievement which equals the firmness and courage displayed on that proud day by the gallant band of Americans: and it certainly stands first in the brilliant events of our war.

under colonel Stark, the whole amounting to about one thousand five hundred men. By direction of the officers the troops upon the open ground pulled up the post and rail fence, and carrying it forward to another of the same kind, and placing some clods of grass between, formed a slight defence in some parts.

A critical scene now opened to the view. The British regulars, formed in two lines, advanced slowly, frequently halting to give time for the artillery to fire. The light infantry were directed to force the left point of the breast-work, and to take the American line in flank. The grenadiers advanced to attack in front, supported by two battalions, under general Howe, while the left, under general Pigot, inclined to the right of the American line. As the British advanced nearer and nearer to the attack, a carcass was discharged from Copp's Hill, which set on fire an old house in Charlestown, and the flames quickly spread to others. The houses at the eastern end of Charlestown were set on fire by seamen from the boats. The whole town consisting of about three hundred dwelling houses, and nearly two hundred other buildings, speedily became involved in one great blaze, being chiefly of timber. The large meeting house, by its aspiring steeple, formed a pyramid of fire above the rest. The houses, heights and steeples in Boston were covered with spectators of this anxious scene, and the surrounding hills were occupied by others.

The slow movement of the British troops advancing to the attack, afforded to the Americans the advantage of taking a surer and more deliberate aim. The wind having shifted, carried the smoke from the conflagration in such a direction that the British had not the cover of it in their approach. The destruction of the place however, served to prevent their opponents from effecting a lodgement in the houses whence they might have annoyed to advantage. General Warren, who had been appointed by congress a major-general in their armies only four days before, was every where aiding and encouraging his men. General Pomeroy commanded a brigade, and general Putnam, a brave and meritorious officer, directed the whole on the fall of general Warren. The troops were ordered to reserve their fire until the close approach of the British. They strictly obeyed, with a steadiness and composure that would have done honour to the most approved veterans, and when the enemy had arrived within ten or twelve rods poured in a discharge of small arms which arrested and so staggered their foes, that they could only for a time return it, without advancing a step. Finding the stream of the American fire so incessant as to mow down whole sections, they retired in disorder to the river. Rallying as well as their extraordinary loss of officers would admit of, the British again advanced with an apparent resolution of forcing their way, whatever loss of lives it might cost them. The Americans again reserved their fire till the enemy arrived within five or six rods, when, discharging their pieces, which were admirably pointed, threw the opposing ranks again into confusion. General Clinton, who, with general Gage, the com-

mander in chief of the British forces in Boston, was on Copp's Hill, observing the events of the day, when he perceived the disconcerted state of the troops, passed over and joined just in time to be of service. The united and strenuous efforts of the different officers were again successful, and the columns were advanced a third time to the attack, with a desperation increased by the unshaken opposition they experienced. It is probable from the nature of the resistance, that every effort to dislodge the Americans would have been ineffectual, had not their ammunition failed; on sending for a supply, none could be procured, as there was but a barrel and a half in the magazine. This deficiency prevented them from making the same defence as before; while the British enjoyed a farther advantage by bringing some cannon to bear so as to rake the inside of the breast-work from end to end, upon which the Americans were compelled to retreat within their redoubt. The British now made a decisive movement, covered by the fire of the ships, batteries, and field artillery. The Americans disputed possession of the works with the butt end of their muskets, until the redoubt, easily mounted and attacked on three sides at once, was taken, and their defences, the labour of only a few hours, had been prostrated by artillery. Whilst these operations were going on at the breast-work and redoubt, the British light infantry were engaged in attempting to force the left point of the former, through the space between that and the water, that they might take the American line in flank. The resistance they met with was as formidable and fatal in its effects as experienced in the other quarter; for here, also, the Americans by command, reserved their fire till the enemy's close approach, and then poured in a discharge so well directed and with such execution, that wide chasms were made in every rank. Some of the Americans were slightly guarded by the rail fences, but others were altogether exposed, so that their bravery in close combat was put to the test, independent of defences neither formed by military rules nor workmen. The most determined assaults of their regular opponents, who were now brought to the charge with redoubled fury, could not, after all, compel them to retreat, till they observed that their main body had left the hill, when they retrograded, but with a regularity that could scarcely have been expected of troops newly embodied, and who in general never before saw an engagement. Overpowered by numbers, and seeing all hope of reinforcement cut off by the incessant fire of the ships across a neck of land that separated them from the country, they were compelled to quit the ground.

The staunch opposition of this band of patriots saved their comrades, who must otherwise have been cut off, as the enemy, but for them, would have been in rear of the whole. While these brave heroes retired, disputing every inch of ground, and taking up every new position successively that admitted of defence, their leader, the gallant Warren, unfortunately received a ball through the right side of the skull, and mechanically clapping his hand to the wound, dropt down dead:

The British, taught by the experience of this day to respect their rustic adversaries, contented themselves with taking post at Bunkers' Hill, which they fortified. The Americans with the enthusiasm of men determined to be free, did the same upon Prospect Hill, a mile in front. It was here that general Putnam regaled the precious remains of his army after their fatigues, with several hogs-heads of beer. Owing to some unaccountable error, the working parties who had been incessantly labouring the whole of the preceding night, were neither relieved nor supplied with refreshment, but left to engage under all these disadvantages.

This battle was generally admitted, by experienced officers of the British army who witnessed it and had served at Minden, Dettingen, and throughout the campaigns in Germany, to have been unparalleled for the time it lasted, and the numbers engaged. There was a continued sheet of fire from the breastwork for near half an hour, and the action was hot for about double that period. In this short space of time, the loss of the British, according to general Gage, amounted to 1054, of whom 226 were killed; of these 19 were commissioned officers, including a lieut. colonel, 2 majors, and 7 captains; 70 other officers were wounded.

The battle of Quebec, in the former war, with all its glory, and the vastness of the consequences attending it, was not so disastrous in the loss of officers as this affair of an American entrenchment, the work of but a few hours. The fact was, the Americans, accustomed to aim with precision and to select objects, directed their skill principally against the officers of the British army, justly conceiving that much confusion would ensue on their fall. Nearly all the officers around the person of general Howe were killed or disabled, and the general himself narrowly escaped. At the battle of Minden, where the British regiments sustained the force of the whole French army for a considerable time, the number of officers killed, including two who died soon after of their wounds was only 13, and the wounded 66; the total loss of the army on that occasion was 291 in killed, and 1037 wounded.

The British acknowledged the valour of their opponents, which, though by no means new to them, surpassed on this occasion what could have been expected of an *handful of cottagers*, as they termed them, under officers of little military knowledge and still less experience, whom they affected to hold in contempt.

They pretended to forget that many of the common soldiers who gained such laurels by their singular bravery on the Plains of Abraham, when Wolfe died in the arms of victory, were natives of the Massachusetts Bay. When Martinique was attacked in 1761, and the British force was greatly reduced by sickness and mortality, the timely arrival of the New England troops enabled the British commander to prosecute the reduction of the island to a happy issue. A part of the troops being sent on an expedition to the Havannah, the New-Englanders, whose health had been much impaired by service and the climate, were embarked in three ships for their native country, with a view to their recovery. Be-

fore they had completed their voyage, they found themselves restored, ordered the ships about, steered immediately for the Havannah, arrived when the British were too much weakened to expect success, and by their junction, contributed materially to the surrender of the place. Their fidelity, activity and good conduct were such as to gain the approbation and unbounded confidence of the British officers. Of such elementary principles were the heroes of Bunker's Hill composed. It surely was a misguided policy to rouse the opposition of men made of these materials.

A spot so fertile in great associations, could not but attract the special notice of the president of the United States, during his late tour to the eastward. It was precisely where Warren fell that his excellency met the citizens of Charlestown on the occasion, and addressed them as follows:

‘It is highly gratifying to me to meet the committee of Charlestown upon a theatre so interesting to the United States. It is impossible to approach Bunker Hill, where the war of the revolution commenced, with so much honour to the nation, without being deeply affected. The blood spilt here, roused the whole American people, and united them in a common cause, in defence of their rights.—That union will never be broken.’

Whether indeed we consider the action of the 17th June in itself, or as the prelude to succeeding events, we must pronounce it to be the most glorious of our history, for the numbers engaged and the defences made use of.

If we except that of New Orleans, no parallel is to be found to it, in the extent of impression produced upon the enemy. But there, time had been afforded for maturing the works, which were constructed under the superintendence of skilful engineers, and extended across a position that could not be outflanked. Twelve hours only were gained for those on Breed's Hill, formed, during a great part of the time, under a heavy fire from the enemy's ships, a number of floating batteries, beside fortifications which poured upon them an incessant shower of shot and shells, and left incomplete, owing to the intolerable cannonade.

We shall close this account, as illustrative of the engraving, with an extract from general Wilkinson's memoirs vol. I.

‘In the temper of the colonists, the deliberate attack on the Provincials at Breed's Hill, the 17th of June 1775, under the orders of general Gage, became the signal for a general appeal to arms. These, indeed, were times which tried men's souls, but they have passed away, and may they never be forgotten. The personal services and sufferings of those days ought ever to obtain that consideration, which the blessings of liberty and independence secured, should inspire.

‘On the evacuation of Boston by the enemy, I accompanied colonels Stark and Reed to take a view of Bunker's Hill,—that memorable theatre of action, where the sword dissevered the ties of consanguinity, and cut asunder the social bonds that united the American colonies to the parent state.

‘Arrived on the field of battle, where those officers had performed conspicuous parts, with anxious inquiry I traced the general disposition of our yeomanry on that eventful day, and the particular station of each corps; I marked the vestiges of the *post and rail fence* on the left, and the breast work, thrown up on the beach of Mystic river, which covered our armed citizens. I paced the distance to the point from whence the British light infantry, after three successive gallant charges, were finally repulsed. I examined the redoubt, the entrenchment, the landings and approaches of the enemy, and every point of attack and defence. Resting on the parapet where, nine months before, ‘valour’s self might have stood appalled,’ I surveyed the whole ground at a glance, and eagerly devoured the information imparted by my brave companions.*

‘With a throbbing breast I stepped from this ground of unequal conflict, where American farmers, contending for the rights of nature, for their wives and children and posterity unborn, bared their bosoms to the bayonets of veteran mercenaries, where victory so long balanced between native courage and disciplined bravery, between freemen who contended for liberty, and the armed ruffian who fights for bread; and following my leaders, we traversed the ruins of Charlestown, lately the abode of thousands animated by the buz of active industry and social happiness, now buried in its own ashes.

‘The resolution displayed by the provincials on this memorable day, produced effects auspicious to the American cause, and co-extensive with the war; for, although compelled by superior numbers to yield the ground, the obstinacy of their resistance put an end to that confidence with which they had been first attacked, and produced measures of caution, bordering on timidity. There can be no doubt that we were indebted to these causes for the unmolested occupancy of our position before Boston, which to complete the investment, was necessarily extended from Roxbury on the right, to Mystic river on the left, a rectilinear distance of about four miles.

‘To the cool courage and obstinacy displayed on the occasion, and the moral influence of the bloody lesson which sir William Howe received on that day, we must ascribe the military phenomenon of a motley band of undisciplined American yeomanry, scarcely superior in number, holding an army of British veterans in close siege for nine months; and hence it might fairly be inferred, that our independence was essentially promoted by the consequence of this single battle.’

[This subject will be resumed in our next number, when we shall give some additional particulars, which we had calculated on receiving in time for the present.]

ART. XII.—*Brief Memoirs of the late Dr. Caspar Wistar.*

WHEN men eminent in their day for talent, acquirement, and public usefulness, are called from the society of this world, it is desirable that some memorials of their public career should be given, to gratify the curiosity of those who survive them. We are all desirous of receiving information concerning men who were honoured in their lives, and lamented in their deaths not merely by the world at large, but by those also, who knowing them intimately, best knew their title to public esteem. Such memorials serve, not to gratify a laudable curiosity, but to furnish reflection,

* Stark had commanded a company of provincials under general Wolfe.

on the means by which public eminence has been acquired, and to impress the value of public approbation so earned as Dr. Wistar earned it, and so cheerfully bestowed by his fellow citizens on this estimable man during the whole extent of his useful life, from the commencement of his public career, to the mournful period of its close.

Dr. Wistar was born in the year 1760: his father was a German from the Palatinate, who emigrated to this country about sixty years ago, and settled as a glass manufacturer in New Jersey. He belonged to the society of friends, of which society Dr. Wistar remained a member as long as he lived. He was educated at the grammar School established by William Penn in Philadelphia, and early determined on the profession of Physic as his future pursuit. With this view, he entered as a private pupil with Dr. John Redman, and attended the Lectures then given in the medical school of Philadelphia, which was daily rising in public estimation. It will not be irrelevant, to give a brief history of this school to whose reputation Dr. Wistar so essentially contributed.

The Institution termed, "The college, academy, and charitable school of Philadelphia," was first projected in 1749, but not chartered as an Incorporation until the year 1753. The power of conferring degrees was given to it under the foregoing title, in 1755.

In 1764 Dr. William Shippen and Dr. John Morgan, projected the plan of a medical school in Philadelphia: in 1765 the former gentleman was appointed Professor of Anatomy in that school, and Dr. Morgan, who delivered a discourse on the establishment of medical schools in America, at the commencement held in the college in 1765, was nominated Professor of the Institutes of Medicine. In 1768 Dr. A. Kuhn was appointed Professor of Botany. Dr. B. Rush, in 1769, Professor of Chemistry, and Dr. T. Bond gave clinical lectures at the hospital independent of the medical Institution of the College.

In 1779 the Legislature of Pennsylvania, conferred on the College a charter of Incorporation as an *University*: but as the Rev. Dr. W. Smith who had been at the head of the College as Provost, was suspected of opinions unfriendly to the prevailing state of politics, new trustees were appointed, Dr. Smith was removed, and the Rev. Dr. John Ewing appointed in his place.

In the year 1789 a law passed, continuing the University, but reviving the college, and two seminaries of medical as well as of general learning, were established with distinct profession: but this plan was too extended for the limited number of pupils and students at that day to support; it was found neither sufficiently lucrative to the profession, or useful to the public; and in 1791 the legislature incorporated the two Institutions under the present denomination of the University of Pennsylvania, with the addition of the Professorships of Law, of Natural History, and of the German Language. Dr. Shippen lectured the first year to ten students, while Dr. Wistar, studied medicine in the shop of Dr. Redman, he attended the lectures of Drs. Shippen, Morgan, Kuhn, and Rush. In 1783 he

left America to pursue his studies in Europe. Such however was the excellent character of Dr. Wistar at that early period, that the Trustees of the medical school in Philadelphia in the spring of 1784, soon after his departure, voluntarily conferred on him the degree of bachelor in medicine.

In 1786 he graduated at Edinburgh with great reputation, and published his Thesis *De animo demisso*. During his absence from this country, he travelled over a great part of England on foot; examining the mining, and manufacturing districts of that country, and whatever else was likely to engage the attention of a man of science.

In February 1787 he returned to Philadelphia having been absent between three and four years. When the college of Philadelphia was revived, he was appointed professor of chymistry and physiology, in which departments of instruction, he gave lectures during the winter sessions of 1789 and 1790. He was also appointed soon after his return consulting physician to the Philadelphia Dispensary, and was one of its early attending physicians. He was also appointed physician to the hospital. Afterwards he became adjunct professor to Dr. William Shippen in the departments of anatomy and surgery; whose reputation was very high as a dissector, and demonstrator, as well as lecturer in anatomy generally. It was as assistant to Dr. Shippen that he acquired the practical skill as a dissector and demonstrator, which laid the foundations of his after-reputation. At this time, he practised also as a physician and surgeon; his surgical studies having been directed by Dr. John Jones, a practitioner of great eminence at that day, and whose friendship brought Dr. Wistar early into public notice as a surgeon.

“Dr. Jones (says Dr. Hosack in his late eulogium on his friend Dr. Wistar) having occasion to perform an important operation, invited Dr. Wistar to accompany him. When the patient was prepared Dr. Jones, addressing Dr. Wistar, as having better sight than himself, at the same time presenting him his knife, requested it as a favour that he would perform the operation. Dr. Wistar immediately complied: and such was the skill and success with which it was performed, that it at once introduced him to the confidence of his fellow citizens. The delicate manner in which this compliment was paid to the talents of Dr. Wistar, was not lost upon his feeling and grateful heart: he ever afterwards acknowledged the patronage of his benefactor by every act of kindness in his power, and by the unceasing expressions of filial affection.”

Indeed if there was one trait more eminent in the character of Dr. Wistar than another, it was the kindness of his feelings, shewn in every part of his conduct, in his voice, and in his manner: and his gratitude for benefits conferred, was only equalled by his anxiety to confer benefits on those, whose talents and deportment appeared to merit his attentions, and to give the promise of future utility to their fellow citizens.

On the decease of Dr. Shippen Dr. Wistar was appointed to fill the chair of his departed friend: indeed he had long performed the duties of this department even while Dr. Shippen was living, and

thus contributed in no small degree to keep up the merited reputation of the university to which he belonged. To the great and popular talents of himself, of Dr. Rush, and of Dr. Barton, is mainly owing, the high standing of the medical school of Philadelphia; and though their equals may be found in learning, knowledge, and industry, their utility as the founders of the *School of Medicine*, will always place them at the head of the medical benefactors of this country. They marked out the Augustan age of medical science in America; a period which we firmly believe and anxiously hope is not yet likely to pass away; but which may hereafter soften down into the age of mediocrity, unless great care be taken to keep up the reputation of the institution, by the choice of professors who have public reputation of their own to add to that which the university through these great men, has already acquired.

In 1815 Dr Wistar was elected honorary member of the literary and philosophical society of New York: in 1816 he was unanimously elected president of the American philosophical society, Mr. Jefferson having declined a re-election to that honourable chair, owing to his advanced age, and the distance of his residence.

Dr. Wistar was too actively engaged to appear often in the character of an author: but his remarks on the fever of 1793, his memoirs on the Ethmoid bone, and on the remains of an animal of the Bos species, were well calculated to enhance his reputation: at the time of his decease, he was fast rising into reputation as a comparative anatomist, and had instituted correspondencies with Cuvier, Sommering and other eminent naturalists in Europe. His system of anatomy, published in two vols., and comprising the heads of his course, is a most useful compend, embracing not merely the anatomy, but the anatomical physiology of the parts noticed, according to the best views at present known of that branch of the subject.

Although Dr. Wistar did not publish many works, he was among the most active contributors to knowledge of all kinds that we have seen in this country, by his scientific meetings at his own house, which was the place of resort of all strangers who had information to communicate, as well as of his friends who were engaged in any scientific pursuit. His house was, a centre from whence the beams of science radiated in all directions, and were transmitted through our country.

Dr. Wistar had for some time apprehended symptoms of hydrothorax, which however went off; still he was occasionally troubled with irregularities of the pulse, which indicated obstructions in the source of circulation. In fact it was found after his decease, that he had suffered under an ossification of the valve of the aorta. But the immediate cause of his decease appears to have been a low fever, caught as we have reason to believe by visiting a poor family in Southwark in the city, where the apartment was close, a stove exceedingly hot, and want of due cleanliness in the room. He complained of great oppression in coming out of the apartment, but his charity led him to go again the next day. On his return his complaints increased. The next day he went to bed after breakfast.

but arose to deliver his lecture at the university. On his return home, he was too feeble to go up stairs. He was supported to his bed, out of which he rose no more. He died on Thursday evening the 22nd. of January 1818 about half past eight o'clock, after an illness of six or seven days.

We cannot close this account better than by the brief obituary inserted the next day in one of the public papers of this city, drawn up by one of his friends, who well knew his worth, and greatly lamented the death, of this kind hearted, and most useful man.

"Died on Thursday evening, at half past eight o'clock, aged 56, at his house in South Fourth street, Philadelphia, *Dr. Caspar Wistar*, many years a physician of the first eminence in the city of Philadelphia, and professor of anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania.

"The loss of this gentleman will be severely felt in this city, by all classes of the community. His great knowledge and attention as a physician, the kindness of his tones, the mildness of his manners, his careful attendance upon the poor, who could not reward, equally assiduous as upon the rich who could, will long endear him to all who knew *Dr. Wistar* in this most useful character.

"As a professor of anatomy, he has not been equalled in this country, and he has been excelled in no other. Perfect master not only of the minutiae of his profession, but of the most effectual modes of teaching it, his lectures were always crowded.—Those students who were not compelled to attend for the sake of a degree, were induced to attend for the sake of information. The skill and care with which his subjects were prepared and brought forward—the simple, neat, intelligible style of his lectures—the kind and friendly character of his voice and manner—his anxiety to make his students fully comprehend what they had to learn—and his great success in these endeavours, have long been admired, and will be long remembered.

"As a scientific man, it will be difficult to replace him in scientific society here. His constant aim was to promote knowledge of all kinds, in all ways. His house was the hospitable resort of scientific strangers from every quarter of the world—his weekly conversation parties through the winter, were the means of concentrating and diffusing every kind of useful intelligence in the philosophical world, nor will his friends who usually met there, ever forget the elegant hospitality of his parties, or the charms of his own conversation that enlivened them.

"*Dr. Wistar* had for some years been afflicted by obstructions in the chest, and irregularities of the pulse. About a week ago, he was seized with a low fever, not distinctly characterized as a Typhus, but which with his constitutional complaints, deprived his friends of a man whose society will hardly be replaced, and the community of one of its brightest ornaments."

T. C.

Dr. Wistar was twice married, first in 1738 to *Isabella Marshall*, by whom he left no offspring: the second time about nineteen years ago, to his present widow, *Eliza Mifflin*, a niece of governor *Mifflin*, by whom he has left two children.

ART. XIII.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature and Politics.*

MECHANICS.

The Elbe cleared by an Englishman.

—A letter from Magdebourg says—The Prussian government made a contract with Mr. Humphreys, the proprietor of the steam-boats, to clear the Elbe of trunks of trees and piles, which embarrassed the navigation. M. Humphreys invented a simple machine, which required only three ordinary workmen, a boatman, and a mechanist to direct them. A time was chosen for trying it, when the waters were low. It was wished to extirpate a line of piles, which were at the bottom of the water, and against which every effort had failed (driven, perhaps, upon some military occasion.) These piles, armed with iron were 15 feet below the surface of the water, in a rocky soil. In an hour and a half twenty-five of them were drawn out; they were brought up with pieces of rock adhering to them. On a second trial, trees covered with sand and mud were taken out with equal facility. The first was an oak of 48 feet long and 4 in diameter. The pincers having seized it, the operation did not last half an hour. The enterprise attracted a great number of spectators, and its success was complete. A great service has thus been rendered to the navigation of the Elbe. *Lit. Pan.*

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On Steam-Boats. By M. Biot. (Journal des Savans.) M. Biot, in analyzing the work of Mr. Robertson Buchanan on Steam-Boats, gives a view of the steps by which that important invention has been brought to its present state of maturity. The general use of it, after being introduced from America into Britain, is about to be transferred from Britain into France. It seems doubtful if steam-boats will be found of equally extensive application there. Fuel is dearer in France than in England, while the maintenance of horses is cheaper; so that tracking, where practicable, will probably be still found more advantageous. But there are large rivers, such as the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Loire, where, from the irregularity of the banks, and their distance from the current, tracking would be impossible; the same would be the case in crossing the Garonne, near its mouth. In the conveyance of men, also, speed is so important, that to insure it

would, in most cases, be worth some additional expense.

M. Biot takes occasion to point out an abuse which is now attempted by some individuals in France. Two companies, it seems, are demanding an exclusive privilege for the employment of steam-boats; one for having imported this machine, so long known, published, engraved, with all its details, in a hundred works; the other, for having thought of this application thirty years ago, though he had abandoned it without deriving any advantage from it. "At this rate," says M. Biot, "there is no foreign invention of which a man may not appropriate to himself the exclusive enjoyment to the detriment of his countrymen. To act thus is purely and simply to undo for his country the benefits which printing procures to civilization." *Ed. Mag.*

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On Lighting with Gas. By M. Biot. (Journal des Savans.)—M. Biot says, that, in 1799, the engineer Lebon first conceived the idea of this application of gas. He carried it into practice at Paris, and publicly exhibited the whole interior of his house and garden illuminated with carburetted hydrogen gas, conducted by tubes from the great reservoir to the lamps. He established a similar apparatus in the Theatre de Louvois, where M. Biot recollects having seen the flame, which was perfectly white, very calm, and of such brilliancy, that the eye could scarcely support it. Lebon, however, did not derive any profit from his invention, so that his example was not followed, and the thing was soon forgotten. It is only in England that it has been established advantageously, and on a great scale; and from England it is now proposed to introduce it into France. A commission has been named by the Prefect of the Seine, to inquire into the propriety of its adoption. M. Biot conceives, that it cannot be eligible for private use, on account of the great expense of the apparatus, even on the smallest scale; but wherever a number of lights are required, the saving will be great; and when the arrangements are properly made, there can be no doubt of the beauty and intensity of the light, of its equability, and the absence of all smell. In an establishment of four hundred

lamps, the expense of lighting by gas will be about a third of that by oil. The following is an estimate made by a friend of M. Biot, of the expense of such an establishment, where the original machinery had cost 25,000 francs.

Interest on the capital, 1500 francs.

Coal used, 3000

Keeping up and working
the machinery, . . . 1520

Annual expense, . . 6020

6000 lbs. tar (*goudron*)

at 30 fr. per 100 1800

Ammoniacal liquor, 200

5000 lbs. coak, at 26 fr. 1300

Produce, . . . 3300

Expense of lighting 400
lamps, 2720

Ed. Mag.

So great is the superiority of gas-light to that of the common lamp, that the whole of the New Mint, with the surrounding military-way and adjoining edifices, have been lighted with gas. The apparatus is constructed on a new plan, and is erected within the walls of the mint. The gas is prepared, not by distilling coal in retorts, as hitherto, but by means of a cylinder kept red hot, and revolving round its axis. The cylinder is upwards of ten feet in diameter, and produces, in twenty-four hours, a sufficient quantity of gas to light sixteen hundred lamps. The purification of the crude coal-gas is effected by chlorine instead of quick-lime, and all the inlet and outlet mains and pipes are made to open and shut by mercurial valves. The quantity of gas daily made and consumed by the burners and lamps is registered, in the absence of the observer, on a dial-plate of a machine, the moving power of which is gas. The effect of the numerous lights scattered upon so extensive a scale over the beautiful machinery of the coining processes, is very striking.

M. Mag.

Some important experiments have lately been made in Staffordshire, with a new mechanic power, for the conversion of the motion of two parallel lines into a rotative, called the *Convertor*.—The apparatus was applied to a crane, in lieu of a winch, the men working in a rowing posture instead of turning

round the handles, as the common way. The advantages derived from this ingenious change of the application of man's force became wonderfully obvious and interesting; the hands of the workers passing to and fro in straight lines through the same extent of space, in the same time, to perform one revolution of the winch axis, as with the old motion; so that mechanically speaking, no time was lost or power gained, as far as regarded the nature of the machine. But, as to the application of man's force, the following results fully establish the very great importance of the invention:—

The men working the crane, sat upon benches opposite to each other, and applied more force, with much less labour, than with the winch, and thereby heaving a greater weight with more facility; with this further advantage, the weight was always, through every part of its ascent, secured from falling by a retrograde motion, as a part of the apparatus was always paused, or locked, while the other part was in motion; and when thrown out of gear, by the simple elevation of a lever, the weight was lowered with the greatest security and despatch. This apparatus is getting up for the cranes at the Dock-yards; it appears most importantly applicable to all machines that are worked by a crank, revolving handle, winch, handspike, or capstan bar, and will produce a very extended and interesting revolution in mechanics. It is one of the most important discoveries ever made by an Englishman; forming a new organ or power of more extensive use than the lever, the wheel, the wedge, the pulley, the inclined plane, the screw, &c. &c. In purchases, by uniting all these mechanic organs or powers, it may produce many new and important results in mechanics, manufactures, agriculture, and commerce. It will also render manual labour applicable to many new purposes, and thereby give very increased and lucrative employ to the working classes; by making all those works that are now in use depending upon a rotatory motion, more easy, safe, and secure; by which the lives, limbs, and health of the labourers will be greatly preserved from risks they have hitherto been liable too. This change of motion has been for ages anxiously sought for; more particularly since the discovery of the Steam power.

Gent. Mag.

USEFUL ARTS.

On Lithography, or Printing from Stone. By M. Quatremere de Quincy.

—This art, which is only beginning to be known in Britain, was invented, and has been carried to great perfection, in Germany. Aloys Seneselder, a singer in the theatre of Munich, was the first who observed the property possessed by calcareous stones of retaining lines made by a thick ink, and of transmitting them in all their purity to paper, applied with a strong pressure to the surface of the stone. He observed besides, that the same effect may be repeated by moistening the stone, and applying to the same lines a new dose of printing black. In 1800, he obtained from the king of Bavaria an exclusive privilege for the use of his process during the space of thirteen years; and, in concert with the Baron d'Arctin, he formed at Munich a lithographic establishment, where music, and collections of models of different kinds, are still engraved.

This invention has made few proselytes in Paris, and would perhaps be still unknown there, but for the efforts of M. Engelmann. It would be too tedious to describe the whole process, but the following are the principles on which it depends:

1. A line traced with a crayon, or a thick ink, upon stone, adheres so strongly, that mechanical means are necessary in order to efface it.

2. All the parts of the stone not covered with this substance receive, preserve, and absorb water.

3. If, over the stone thus prepared, there be passed an oily and coloured substance, it will attach itself to the lines drawn by the ink or crayons, and will be repelled by the moistened parts.

In a word, the lithographic process depends on this, that a stone moistened with water repels ink, while the same stone, covered with an oily substance, repels water, and absorbs ink. Thus, when a sheet of paper is pressed upon the stone, the greasy and coloured lines will be transferred to it, and will present a copy of the design drawn upon the stone. *Ed. Mag.*

— A stone adapted to the purposes of lithography has been lately discovered in East Lothian, on the estate of the earl of Wemyss and March. Various successful experiments have already

been made with it by Mr. Ruthven, the ingenious inventor of the patent printing-press. *ib.*

— *France.* The art of Lithography is making a most rapid progress, from the rival exertions of Count LASTEYRIE and M. ENGELMANN: their spirited emulation has done for it what a monopoly would not have accomplished in a century. Have we not seen, indeed, lithography commenced with spirit and under the happiest auspices, and abandoned as unable to replace engraving even for the commonest purposes? Under Count Lasteyrie's care, it rivals copper in almost every line of engraving, and possesses, besides, advantages peculiar to itself. A series of lithographic prints, by Count Lasteyrie, now publishing in Paris, under the title of "A Collection of different kinds of Lithographic Impressions, which may be advantageously applied to the Sciences, and the Mechanical and Liberal Arts." The second number, containing six plates, has just appeared; an account of them cannot fail to interest our readers. The first is the original design of a great master,—a pen-and-ink drawing, which is rendered with perfect fidelity and spirit. This plate offers, too, another species of interest, and that very important; the design has been traced on the stone upwards of sixteen years, and the proofs are as fine and spirited as if it had not been done so many days. This is a triumphant proof that lithographic designs upon stone may be kept any length of time, like a copper-plate. The second plate is a pencil-drawing of a plant; we have seen an engraving of the same plant in a botanical work of great luxury of execution, and we hesitate not to prefer the lithographic impression. The third plate presents various specimens of writing—Italic, roman, &c. and fac-similes of old Greek manuscripts. In this department the lithographic art is unrivalled; it presents the originals with an accuracy in every way that it is impossible for any other branch of art ever to attain. The fourth plate is a topographic plan cut in stone, which produces a very striking and peculiar effect. The Count Lasteyrie's Battle of Austerlitz may be cited as a model of perfection in this way. The fifth plate is a pencil-design of a nosegay of roses: lithography seems excellently calculated to render with

truth the various parts of flowers with a softness and precision resembling nature. The sixth plate is written music, or, as the lithographers denote it, *autographed music*. The method by which this plate is executed displays one of the most important advantages of lithography—a person writes a letter, composes music, or makes a drawing on paper in the ordinary way, excepting that he uses a peculiar ink; this is transferred to the stone by simply passing it through the press, and the stone, without further preparation, is ready to print off thousands of proofs, all equally perfect. It is this quality of lithography that has secured its admission into all the French public offices: by its means 60,000 or 70,000 proclamations, in the autograph of the minister, may be taken off and despatched before the plate even could be engraved. In the branch of landscape, the Count Lasteyrie has recently surpassed his former efforts so far that they will not bear any comparison with each other: it is difficult to fix the limits of genius, united with application, or we should be inclined to believe that he had very nearly attained the perfection at which it is possible for the art to arrive.

M. Mag.

NATURAL HISTORY.

A most valuable collection of Javan natural history, birds, animals, a vast herbary, &c. in addition to the minerals mentioned in last number, has also we are now informed been deposited in the Hon. company's Museum. The praise of securing to his country the means of extending our knowledge in these very interesting and useful branches of mental cultivation belongs to Sir T. S. Raffles; Dr. Horsfield, an American gentleman, had been for some years employed by the Dutch, and afterwards the French governments of the island as professor of natural history; this gentleman who was actuated by great zeal for the accomplishment of the task he had undertaken, on the arrival of the British authority, found himself not only patronized, but powerfully stimulated by the perpetually active energies of the Lieut. Governor. The intention of developing and presenting to European science the entire natural history of Java, was worthy of

sir Thomas, and without doubt had been accomplished in a manner deserving the thanks of the learned of all nations, had not Java been restored. But for this, humanity as well as literature, may have long occasion for regret.

Asiatic Jour.

Some time ago an application was made to government, by the University of Edinburgh, for the improvement of its museum of Natural History. For this purpose, it was requested, that instructions might be issued to the different ministers and public servants abroad, recommending that they should avail themselves of every opportunity of collecting specimens, and should transmit them to the University to be added to its museum. A favourable answer to this application having been received from lord Castlereagh, professor Jameson drew up the following directions as to the best mode of preserving the various objects of Natural History. We gladly avail ourselves of his obliging permission to insert them, as we are persuaded that, besides answering the object immediately in view, they will be found eminently useful to all who pursue the different branches of this extensive and important science.

Quadrupeds and Birds.—Quadrupeds and birds to be preserved by taking off their skins, which may be easily done, by making an incision in a straight line, from the vent to the throat, and removing the skin by means of a blunt knife. The skull, and bones of the legs and feet are to be left. The brain, eyes, and tongue, ought also to be extracted. The skin, in order that it may be preserved from decay, should be also rubbed on the outside with some one of the following compositions: 1st, tanners' bark well dried and pounded, one part; burnt alum, one part; and in a hot climate one part of sulphur; to be well mixed together.—2d, tanners' bark well dried and pounded, one part; tobacco, perfectly dried, one part; burnt alum, one part; add to every ounce of these ingredients one ounce of camphor, and half an ounce of sulphur. (*N. B.* No sublimate or arsenic ought to be put on the skins, as both substances destroy their texture.) These compositions to be kept for use in well corked bottles or jars.

Skins, when thus prepared, and per-

fectly dry, must be packed carefully in boxes, the lids of which ought to be pasted up, and in the paste used in fixing the paper, a little corrosive sublimate must be put, which prevents insects from eating through the paper.

Reptiles and Fishes.—Reptiles and fishes are best preserved in spirit of wine, rum, or whisky, some of which must be injected into the stomach, through the mouth, and into the other intestines through the anus. Before putting them into bottles, jars, or barrels, they ought to be washed clean of slimy matter. If long kept in spirits before they are sent, the spirits should be changed two or three times. The jars or bottles ought to be closed by means of sheet-lead and bladders. The larger reptiles, as crocodiles, and the larger fishes, may be preserved in the same manner as quadrupeds and birds.

Animal Concretions.—Concretions of various kinds are occasionally found in the brain, lungs, heart, liver, kidneys, gall-bladder, intestines, and urinary bladder. The stomachs of many animals afford concretions of different kinds, particularly those known under the name of *Bezoar Stones*; and travellers inform us, that stones are met with in the eggs of the ostrich. All of these bodies are interesting and valuable to the natural historian.

Skeletons.—Collectors ought not to neglect to preserve the skeletons of the different species of animals. Of man, the skull is the most interesting part, as it varies in the different races of the human species, and is also frequently singularly altered by the practices of savage tribes. The best way of cleaning bones, is to expose them to the air, and allow the insects to eat off the flesh. This being done, they ought to be washed with sea water, and afterwards freely exposed to the sun. The best skulls are obtained by putting the whole head in rum or whiskey, or a strong solution of alum; and both male and female heads ought if possible to be preserved.

Molluscous Animals, — Vermes and Zoophytes.—Molluscous animals, such as cuttle fish, the inhabitants of shells, &c. Vermes or worms, and Zoophytes, or animals of the coral and other allied kinds, ought all to be preserved in spirits; and in the two former classes, viz. the Mollusca and Vermes, the spirit of wine should be injected into the in-

testines, by means of a syringe, to prevent the putrefaction of the internal parts, and the consequent destruction of the organs of digestion, respiration, and of the nervous system. Many Zoophytes or Corals, or rather their houses, may be preserved dry; but fragments of every species ought to be put into spirits, that the real structure of the animal may be discovered.

Shells.—Shells, or the coverings of Molluscous animals, are anxiously sought after by the naturalist, not only on account of their great beauty, but also from their intimate connexion with the various fossil species met with in rocks of different kinds. The best live shells are collected by means of a trawling-net, such as is used by fishermen, if the depths are not too great; they are also brought up by the cable in weighing anchor, the log-line, and in sounding.

After a storm, good shells may be picked up on sea beaches or shores, as the violent agitation of the ocean in a tempest separates them from their native beds, and often casts them on the shore. Shells that have been much tossed about by the waves, are of less value than fresh ones; but these, when other specimens are not to be got, ought to be carefully collected. Many interesting shells are found in rivers and lakes; and numerous species occur on the surface of the land.

Fresh shells, or those in which the animal is still alive, ought to be thrown into hot water, the temperature of which may be gradually brought to the boiling point, by the repeated additions of hotter portions, by which means the animal will be killed. The shells are allowed to cool for two or three minutes, and then the animal is picked out.

Insects.—Beetles of every kind are speedily deprived of life by putting into boiling water, which does not injure those having black, brown, or any dark colour; but those which are covered with fine down, or have brilliant colours and lustre, should not be exposed to moisture, but are easily killed, if put into a phial, and placed in a vessel of boiling water for some time. When the insects are quite motionless, such as have been in the water should be exposed to the air and sun for a day or two, until perfectly dry. In this state, they are to be placed in boxes with

cotton-wool, along with camphor. Beetles may also be preserved in spirit of wine.

Butterflies, moths, and many other tribes of insects, with delicate and tender wings, may be easily killed, by pressing the thorax or breast betwixt the finger and thumb; and it is preferable to have the wings closed, because they thus occupy less space, their colour and lustre are better preserved, and they can be expanded afterwards by the steam of hot water. Care should be taken that the antennæ or feelers and legs are not injured. A pin should be stuck through them, by means of which they are fastened to the bottom of a box lined with cork, or to one of deal, or other soft wood. Camphor ought to be put into the box.

The Arachnides or Spiders are best preserved in spirits.

In collecting insects, we use either the forceps or a net. The forceps are about ten or twelve inches in length, provided with fans of a circular or other form, and are covered with fine gauze. They are held and moved as a pair of scissors. The net is very easily made. It is of gauze, or any very fine open muslin, made upon a piece of cane of four feet long, split down the middle about the half of the length: the split part is tied together, so as to form a hoop, upon which the gauze is sewed in the form of a bag; the lower part serves as a handle, and with this, all flying insects may be very easily caught. When the insect is once within the rim of the net, by turning it on either side, its escape is completely prevented by the pressure of the gauze or muslin against the edge of the hoop.

Crabs.—Crabs, Lobsters, &c. may be suffocated in spirits of wine or turpentine, and then dried in an oven.

Crustaceous Animals.—Sea Stars, after washing in fresh water, may be extended on boards by means of pins, and when dry, laid between folds of paper, and packed in a box with a little camphor.

In Echini or Sea Eggs, the soft internal parts are to be extracted by the anus: they are then to be stuffed with cotton, and carefully packed with tow or cotton. Particular attention should be paid to the preserving of the spines.

Seeds.—In collecting seeds, it is desirable that they should be well ripened, and dried in the sun. Large quantities

should never be put together, but only a few, and these well selected. They retain their vegetative powers much better if tied up in linen or cotton cloth, than in any other substances; and if then packed up in small boxes, and placed in an airy part of the ship, there is every probability of their arriving in a sound state. The same remark applies to bulbous roots. Bulbs should never be put in the same box with seeds. The boxes with seeds, and with bulbs, ought never to be put into the ship's hold.

Dried Plants.—The greater part of plants dry easily between leaves of books, or other paper. If there be plenty of paper, they often dry best without shifting; but if the specimens are crowded, they must be taken out frequently, and the paper dried before they are replaced. Those plants which are very tenacious of life, ought to be killed by the application of a hot iron, such as is used for linen, after which they are easily dried. The collections to be carefully packed in boxes with camphor, and closed in the same manner as directed for quadrupeds and birds.

Minerals.—1. Every mineral, from the most common clay or sand, to the gem, ought to be collected.

2. Specimens of rocks, such as granite, porphyry, limestone, &c. should, if possible, be broken from fixed rocks, and not from loose masses, which are generally decayed. In selecting the specimens, one set ought to represent the different varieties of appearance presented by the rock in the fresh state, another, the rock in its different states of decomposition.

3. When the specimens of simple minerals, or rocks, contain crystals, they ought to be wrapped in gauze-paper, then in cotton, and afterwards in several folds of strong wrapping-paper.

4. The specimens of rocks ought, if possible, never to be less than four inches square, and one inch in thickness, and of a square form. As soon as they have been prepared, they should be labelled, and wrapped in several folds of strong wrapping-paper. When paper cannot be procured, moss, or other soft vegetable substance, may be substituted for it.

5. The sands of deserts, steppes, and rivers, ought to be carefully collected. The sands of rivers often contain pre-

cious stones and metals, and hence become very interesting objects to the naturalist. The sands of deserts and steppes throw much light on the nature of the surrounding country, and are much prized by the geologist.

6. Numerous mineralized animal and vegetable remains occur imbedded in strata of different kinds; all these ought to be very carefully collected, and preserved. Abundance of shells in a fossil or petrified state, are met with in limestone; of vegetables in slate-clay, sandstone, &c.; and numerous bones, and even whole skeletons of quadrupeds, birds, amphibious animals, fishes, and even of insects, occur in rocks of various descriptions.

7. The mineralogist ought to provide himself with hammers of various sizes. One for common use of two pounds weight; others, three, four, and six pounds weight. He ought also to provide himself with chisels of various sizes and forms, and with a set of small boring-irons. A miner's compass, small magnifying glass, goniometer, and blow-pipe, ought also to form part of his equipment. The two first are indispensably necessary for the travelling mineralogist. Nor should he neglect to provide himself with a strong bag; the form that of a fowling-bag, lined with strong leather, covered with wax-cloth, and the outside of some durable cloth.

Antiquities, Articles of Dress, Agricultural, Hunting, and Warlike Instruments, &c. of different Nations and Tribes.—The collecting of the various articles just enumerated, is particularly recommended, as these objects illustrate, in a very interesting manner, the past and present condition of the human species.

Drawings.—Drawings of zoological and geological subjects,—also of the scenery of countries,—the costume of different nations and tribes,—form valuable documents for the natural historian. *Ed. Mag.*

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

Turin, Aug. 30.—Count Camille Borgia, a celebrated archæologist, is just dead in this city, in the flower of his age. His widow will publish an important work which he has left behind. He had resided a considerable time in Africa, and under the protection of the Bey of Tunis he had oppor-

tunities of making researches, and taking plans of two hundred and fifty half-ruined towns or villages, and had obtained permission to copy three Arabic manuscripts in the Bey's own library, two of which are wholly unknown in Europe. *Asiat. Jour.*

A Moorish lord, named Sidi Omback-Ben-Bey, has arrived in Paris. He travels through Europe to inform and report to his countrymen the result of his discoveries and travels. *ib.*

The Russian frigate *Kamschatka*, is refitting at Spithead, for a voyage round the world. She arrived the other day from Cronstadt. *ib.*

Travellers; Antiquities.—M. de Richter, a Livonian, and a M. Liedman, a Swede, during the course of the year 1815, visited the whole of Egypt and Nubia; and are now intent on publishing the result of their researches, which will contribute to complete those of Bruce, of lord Valentia, and of Mr. Salt. They returned by way of Syria, whence Mr. Liedman took the direction of Constantinople. M. de Richter has determined on another excursion, and has taken his Journey North East with the intention to penetrate into Bactria.

We hope that these travellers and all others, will take warning from the death of poor Seetzen, who certainly was murdered for the sake of the wealth supposed to be contained in his convoy of seventeen camels!—and will preserve a moderation, not to say, a privacy, that prudence will ever hold to be indispensable. *Lit. Pan.*

STATISTICS &c.

On the Charitable Establishments of Paris. by M. Raynouard. (Journal de Savans.)—PARIS contains ten hospitals for the sick, (*hopitaux*), nine charitable houses, (*hospices*), and twenty-two houses destined for beneficent purposes, (*bureaux de bienfaisance*.)

The Hotel Dieu, the most ancient hospital in Paris and, perhaps in Europe, has existed since the seventh century. It was long the only hospital which received the sick of both sexes, and every age,—foundlings, pregnant women, and even maniacs. Till very lately, these were crowded together in ill arranged halls, two, four, and even

six in the same bed. Since the commencement of the present century, these inconveniences have been remedied; new halls have been constructed, better divided, and better aired; and the consequence has been a considerable diminution of the mortality. Generally speaking, there die in the hospitals 1 in 71-2, and in the *hospices* 1 in 61-2. The patients remain, on an average, a month and ten days in the hospital.

The Lying-in Hospital received in 1814, women to the number of 2700, of whom 2400 acknowledged themselves not to be married.

The Foundling Hospital, from 1804 to 1814, received 23,458 boys, and 22,463 girls; in all, 45,921; of this number 4130 were supposed to be legitimate.

The average annual expense of the hospitals is about 2,300,000 francs, (*l.* 110,000.) The number of patients received is about 35,500. The *hospices* receive only about 5900, but they receive them to remain for life.

In regard to aids given at home, the number of poor persons thus relieved amounted, in 1804, to nearly 87,000; in 1813, to 103,000; and this last may be considered as nearly the medium term of the ten years.

Reception of the Russian Embassy in Persia.

On the 31st of July, the Russian Ambassador, Lieut. Gen. Yermoloff, was admitted with great solemnity, to a first audience of the Sovereign of Persia, Feth Aly Schah, in a magnificent tent. The ambassador having with him a band of music, strong detachments of Cossacks, and a brilliant suite, was received by a body of 3000 Persian horsemen, of distinction, and by a guard of honour of 200 men. He was then received by the brother-in-law of the Schah, as well as by the late Persian ambassador in Russia, Muza Khan, who wore the insignia of the orders of the Lion and of the Sun, and the Portrait of the Schah.

There was in the tent of the Schah, and in the neighbourhood, a great number of troops and spectators, as well as four Kasaka Shy, or Lictors, in the exercise of their functions, having steel axes, incrustated with gold, and the handles ornamented with precious stones. The ambassador having made three

salutations, the Schah, seated on a magnificent throne, called out to him. "Be welcome." Among them was captain Kotzebue. The Schah was told that this officer had passed three years in a voyage round the world, but that he had, above all, desired to see the great sovereign of Persia. The Schah took it as a pleasantry, and said, smiling, "Well, then, now you have seen every thing." The crown of the Schah is formed of the most costly jewels, and from the shoulder to the girdle he was covered with rich jewels; his dagger was also adorned with them, which looked incredibly brilliant in the sun. At the back of the tent were the fourteen sons of the Schah, in the most respectful attitude. When the ambassador pronounced the name of Feth-Aly-Schah, all the persons present made a profound inclination.

Three days after the grand audience, the ambassador was invited to a public *fete*, which the Schah himself honoured with his presence.—The arrival of the sovereign was announced by the firing of five hundred small guns. As soon as he appeared, the heralds at arms wished him a long and happy reign. The prince then addressed some flattering expressions to Nachy-Momedi-Hysseim Khan, the Court Poet, who instantly delivered a long panegyric upon the Schah, extempore. The *fete* consisted of exercises in the eastern manner. After the *fete*, the Schah retired to prayer, and then returned to see the presents sent him by the emperor of Russia. He was greatly astonished to find that the presents in porcelain, crystal, velvet, and cloth embroidered with gold, were the produce of Russian art. He was particularly struck with a pyramid in precious wood and ivory, which, opening by means of a spring, presented a lady's complete dressing apparatus. This was one of the presents to the queen of Persia, which the ambassador took that opportunity of laying before her, with letters from the empress of Russia. The Schah also beheld with great admiration, a *Psychemirror*, in which he seemed to take great pleasure in contemplating himself. The second audience went off as agreeably as the first.

— *Lit. Pan.*

Death of Kosciusko.—The celebrated Polish general Kosciusko died at Soleure, in Switzerland, on the 15th ult.

A life full of virtue, and brilliant with glory, was terminated in calm tranquillity. He had lived for several years in retirement, the object of much veneration, surrounded only by the recollection of his fame, and by some faithful and unfortunate friends, to whom he was a constant benefactor. It was his wish that his funeral should be conducted with the utmost simplicity, and he expressed a desire that his mortal remains should be carried to the grave by the poor. The death of this celebrated general has excited the deepest regret; his friends wept bitterly over his tomb, and the name of the hero whose ashes it incloses, will be forever considered as allied with inflexible virtue, with patriotism, and the love of true glory. *ib.*

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Professor Ewers has published in German, at Petersburg, the first volume of his *History of Russia*, in which particular regard is paid to the internal development of the Russian monarchy. This volume comes down to Peter the Great. The same writer, in association with M. Von Engelhard, has also published the first part of the first volume of *Contributions to the Knowledge of Russia and its History*. M. Von Engelhardt has moreover given to the public an *Introduction to Geognosy*.

Ed. Mag.

NAVAL.

Timber to be Steamed in Salt Water.

The Eden that was lately sunk by way of experiment for the dry rot, has been minutely surveyed to ascertain the result, which appears to answer every expectation. The Mersey is to undergo the same treatment, and is preparing for that purpose. In future all timber and plank are to be boiled or steamed in salt instead of fresh water, as has been the general practice of late years. *Lit. Pan.*

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Newly-invented Life Buoy.—Mr. Thomas Cook, Admiralty midshipman of the Rochefort has invented a life-buoy, for the preservation of the lives of seamen who may happen to fall overboard at sea during the night. It is so constructed as to contain a quantity of unextinguishable matter, which on letting go the buoy from the stern of the ship, is set fire to, and continues to burn for a considerable time above the surface of the water, thereby pointing

out to the person overboard a place of safety until further assistance can be sent to him. Trial was made of it alongside the Rochefort, on Wednesday last, in the presence of admiral Sir Edward Thornborough, K. C. B., captains Sir Archibald Dickson, Carteret, Boger, and Falcon, when it is represented to have answered the purpose intended extremely well. *ib.*

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An experiment was lately made at Portsmouth, on board his majesty's ship Wellesley, of a newly invented Syphon, which is intended to water ships from a tank-vessel, instead of pumping. The instrument is two feet and a half diameter, and it discharged twenty and a half tons per hour, which was considered a most satisfactory proof of its efficacious power.—It is the invention of Lieut. Rodgers. *Asiatic Jour.*

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

On Sir Humphrey Davy's Safety Lamp. By M. Biot.—M. Biot in the present article gives a succinct account of this admirable invention, now well known in this country and accompanies it with the following observations:—

“As long as the human mind remained a stranger to the benefits of experimental philosophy, that is to say, from the remotest times down to the age of Galileo, it was naturally believed that chance alone could make useful discoveries; and, by a necessary consequence, the observation of natural phenomena was regarded as a purely speculative branch of inquiry; but since theoretical considerations have given place to the careful and exact study of the properties of matter,—since the art was known of creating new phenomena, with the view of investigating the concealed qualities which we wish to know, an art of which Galileo and Newton first gave such memorable examples,—the sciences have acquired genuine wealth. Science, ably interrogated, has answered with precision; her answers have been benefits; even the vulgar have comprehended her power; they have learned to esteem these great men whose speculations had secretly prepared so many useful consequences.

The processes by which Sir H. Davy has found the means of protecting the life of miners against the attacks of

their most terrible enemy, present a new and memorable example of the advantages of that plan by which, from the most abstract principles of science, practical applications are drawn of the highest importance, but which, from the complicated nature of the elements on which they depend, chance could never have discovered.

The lamp of Sir H. Davy, for the lighting of mines, is more wonderful than the enchanted lamp of Aladdin. Here the gas itself is made to give warning of the danger which it threatens. This formidable enemy is not only conquered by science,—it is forced to serve; it becomes a sure guide, a submissive slave. Already in England, this lamp has preserved the lives of a great number of miners. So useful an invention we hope will soon be adopted in France, in the numerous coal-mines which are worked in that country. *Ed. Mag.*

We have great pleasure in announcing to our readers, that professor Leslie is at present engaged in a series of very curious and important experiments, which will throw new light on the constitution and phenomena of our atmosphere. In the prosecution of his views, he has been led to construct a delicate and powerful instrument, on which he has bestowed the name of *Æthroscope*.

— *Ed. Mag.*

LITERATURE AND SCIENCE.

College at Corfu.—Too much praise cannot be given to lord Guildford, for his noble and beneficent exertions to promote the permanent establishment at Corfu of a college for the education of Grecian youths, and the ardour with which he follows up the same, his lordship being on the eve of his return to that island, to see the measure carried into effect. *Lit. Pan.*

University of Christiania.—The Norwegian government has taken laudable measures to promote the study of the sciences. The university library, which, though not inconsiderable was really poor in several departments, has received at once a sum of 7000*l.* sterling, in order to make good the deficiencies as far as possible. The library has been faithfully promised a sum annually, as soon as the finances of the state are in some measure regulated. A 1000*l.* have been given for the formation of a physical and chymical cabinet, and a

travelling stipend granted to the professor of physics and chymistry, in order that he may pass some years abroad. A 1000*l.* are likewise granted to purchase astronomical instruments for the observatory at Christiania. The university has rather more than one hundred students, among whom there are no foreigners. The system of education is exactly the same as at the university of Copenhagen. *ib.*

Several young Russians have been sent to England at the public expense to learn the Lancasterian method of education, and are now about to introduce it in their own country. *ib.*

Germany.—The emperor of Austria, desirous of advancing useful knowledge, and transplanting to his dominions some of the valuable natural productions of the new world, has availed himself of the opportunity of the marriage and departure of his daughter the Archduchess Leopoldine, to send to Brazil a number of men of science, who, with the permission of the king of Portugal, are directed to explore the most remarkable parts of that country, to examine the different productions of the three kingdoms of nature, and to enrich the European collections with specimens of them. His imperial majesty has granted the sums necessary for the expedition, and given the chief direction of it to prince Metternich. The persons appointed to proceed to Brazil for this purpose are:—Dr Mikon, a physician, and professor of Botany at Prague; M. Gatterer, belonging to the cabinet of Natural History; M. Enders, landscape painter; M. Schott, botanical gardener at the palace of Belvedere; Professor Pohl, advantageously known by several works on mineralogy; M. Buchberger, painter of plants; and M. Schick as librarian. The first four sailed from Trieste in the frigates *Austria* and *Augusta*, and the other three will embark at Leghorn with the Archduchess. M. Schreiber, director of the imperial cabinet of Natural History, is appointed to write the account of the voyage. Messrs. Spix and Martens, members of the academy of sciences at Munich, have joined the expedition.

Ed. Mag.

Russia.—The university of Dorpat in Livonia now numbers 300 students,

some of whom come from very remote parts of the empire, as well as from the provinces bordering on the Baltic. The buildings for the university are finished. One is occupied by a philosophical cabinet, and another by the library, containing nearly 30,000 volumes. In these buildings have also been provided halls for public orations, and other solemn acts of the university. The professors hold their lectures in a fine and spacious edifice, situated on the Dornberg; the anatomical theatre is arranged with taste. From amidst the ruins of the ancient cathedral rises another superb structure, one part of which contains the museum, and the other serves for the university church. Professor Jasche and Morgenstern are distinguished by their worth and erudition. In the *Lounge*, or reading-room, a stranger meets with all the scholars of Dorpat, and also the foreign literary, political, and philosophical journals.

ib.

Works in demand; for Honour.—The French Academy, prior to the late elections, adopted a singular rule with respect to the candidates for the vacant seats among that distinguished body. They made them produce all the literary works of which they had been the authors. This was in fact to call for a number of publications that had long sunk in obscurity, and many of which indeed were totally destroyed; for the confounded grocers and trunk-makers have no compassion. The malicious have given this affair a certain political character, which may be play to them, but is death to the subjects of it. They go so far as to say that the following story, has at least its foundation in truth: if it were less caustic it would more readily command credence.

One day, one of the most forgotten of the living French poets, was, in consequence of this rule, walking on the quay of the Louvre, and narrowly spying into every second-hand bookseller's shop. Suddenly, oh, mortifying spectacle, he observes on the pavement, huddled among other things, one of his fugitive pieces; and anxious to relieve it from its state of degradation, he asks the price of it. "That, Sir, replies the bookseller, "that is six-pence." "What do you mean by six pence?" exclaims the author, piqued to find the productions of his genius estimated at

so low a rate, "you do not know what you are selling, friend." Pardon me, Sir, I know very well that it is not over and above clever, but then the paper is worth four-pence." "Hold, block-head!" replied the indignant poet, "here are fifteen-pence for it.—You deserve that in order to teach you your trade, I should give you thirty."

Political Summary.

France is tranquil. Louis XVIII appears to be engaged in admitting to confidence the old military of Bonaparte's army. Marshal Davoust, who, since the capitulation of Paris, has been in disgrace at the Thuilleries, was lately presented to the king, and received from his hands the *baton* of a marshal; and general Debelle, condemned to death for his adherence to Bonaparte, on his return from Elba, whose sentence was afterwards commuted to ten years imprisonment, has now been restored to liberty by a full pardon from the king. The royal family pay particular attention to the duke of Orleans, who, till lately, was not well received at court, and he seems intended for employment.

Throughout Great Britain, trade is reviving. The death of the princess Charlotte has engrossed much of the public attention. The question of the succession to the throne is affected by that event. The duke of York tendered his resignation as commander in chief, but has been solicited to continue in that capacity.

From the Netherlands we have nothing new, if we except the retirement of the hereditary prince of Orange from the command of the army, in consequence of a dispute with the minister of war, arising out of the young prince's public disrespect to the memory of the princess Charlotte of England, who had refused him for a husband. It is said he threw off his court mourning immediately after the church service performed in honour of the deceased, dressed himself in regimentals, and went to a public ball.

Ships continue to be equipped in England for the purpose of conveying officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates, to aid the patriots in South America. One vessel has on board officers, fully equipped, and 200 privates, to form a rifle corps. Another is in a forward state of preparation, and has appointments for a cavalry regiment

600 strong a third is freighted with the equipments of a lancer's corps, 400 strong. The officers are all men who have seen active service, and are of every rank, from lieutenant colonels to ensigns. The organization and arrangements are so complete, that they will be ready for immediate service on their arrival in America. Notices have been posted up in several coffee houses in London, inviting passengers to go on board vessels waiting to sail direct for South America; thus the circuitous route by St. Thomas's, formerly taken, is now dispensed with, and a great saving, both of time and expense, will be effected. Thirty thousand stand of arms had been shipped, minutely inspected by the agents for the independents, and are in general of the best description of materials, and well got up.

The acquisition of Florida by the United States is agitated, but nothing decisive appears to be concluded. The occupation of Amelia island, by a detachment of troops of the United States army, seems to be the fore-runner of events in that quarter. Whatever negotiations are pending, it is probable they will terminate amicably, as there seems a disposition generally prevalent among the different powers, cautiously to abstain from committing themselves in fresh hostility.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

The fourth and last Canto of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage, with considerable notes, comprising Observations upon Society, Literature, &c., made during his Travels and Residence abroad. By the Right Hon. Lord Byron. 8vo.

The Dramatic Works complete, with the Poems, &c., of the late Right Hon. Richard Brinsley Sheridan. To which will be prefixed an Essay on the Life and Genius of the Author. By Thomas Moore, Esq., Author of *Lalla Rookh*. 4vols. 8vo.

The Selected Beauties of British Poetry, with Lives of the Poets, and Critical Dissertations. To which will be prefixed, an Essay on English Poetry. By Thomas Campbell, Esq., Author of the *Pleasures of Hope*. 4 vols. post 8vo.

This work will contain a number of excellent little poems, which have been

but partially noticed—known only to amateurs, and transcribed in their common-place books; but most of them rarely, and some of them never, introduced into any collection of poetry. In the biographies, the editor has exerted the main part of his strength on the merits and writings of each poet as an Author, rather than in little anecdotes, and discoveries of his residence and conversation as a man, unless such things are striking, and can be obtained without sacrificing the great object of his efforts.—*To make a complete body of English Poetical Criticism.*

New Encyclopædia.

This is the age of Encyclopædias—a new work of this kind is announced in the London journals, termed the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana* on the novel plan of an alphabetical and philosophical arrangement of subjects. This method was suggested some time since by Mr. Maxwell, printer, of this city, as combining the advantage of accommodation to purchasers of separate volumes, specially useful in their several spheres, and a division more agreeable to the organization of science, as well as more commodious for reference. It is proposed to comprise under each main division of subjects, every branch into which it can possibly diverge, instead of scattering in alphabetical fragments through successive volumes, published at distant periods of time, the various attributes that belong to it. This will be attended with the evident advantage of compact connexion, and will unquestionably be founded on more rational and systematic principles than have hitherto been observed in these important works.

DOMESTIC LITERATURE.

The Necessity of Protecting and Encouraging the Manufactures of the United States, considered in a Letter to James Monroe, Esq., President of the United States. By John Melish. Philadelphia. Published by John Melish. 1818. pp. 30.

This is a well meant endeavour to call the attention of the executive to the important subject of encouragement to domestic manufactures. In the late commercial treaty between the governments of the United States and Great

Britain, particular attention was had to the interest of the cotton planters, by securing an admission of cotton into the British islands from these states, in American vessels, on paying the same duty as cotton from the British possessions in British bottoms. How far the arrangement might be affected on the expiration of the existing treaty, by raising the duties on imports into the United States, (the only practicable mode of protecting domestic manufactures) could be best explained by those acquainted with the negotiations that preceded the adoption of our present tariff.

The Quarterly Theological Review, conducted by the Rev. Ezra Stiles Ely, A.M., of this city, published by A. Finley, Philadelphia.

The continuance of this quarterly publication, we are informed in the advertisement, will depend on the health of the conductor and the patronage it may experience. Whilst such journals as the "Christian Observer," and "Christian Register," continue to be published, and conducted with that ability and solemnity suited to the importance of the subjects treated of, it will require superior merits in the reverend clergyman (whose name, conspicuously displayed in the title page, may possibly be a guarantee for its reception,) to confer upon his work that celebrity which may enable it to rank with these performances of established reputation. We have been disappointed to find some flippant passages, and defects which should be carefully guarded against. The contents will show that a "Theological Review," has scarcely sufficient materials to support itself, without the introduction of some extraneous and apparently incongruous matter, they are:

"Review of Bishop White's essay on Assurance of Pardon. I. E. —'s reply to Bishop White's essay. A. Layman's reply to the bishop of Lincoln. Wirt's life of Patrick Henry. M'Leod's sermons on true godliness. Celebs deceived, a novel. Cogan's ethical questions, or speculations. Governor Findlay's inaugural address. D. Wilson's essay, and English grammar. Robert Hall on terms of communion. Reports of the library committee, of the committee on public schools, and of the committee on domestic economy, to the Pennsylvania society for the pro-

motion of public economy. Shaw's brief disposition of the Lancasterian system. Gethsemane, or thoughts on the sufferings of Christ. D. Styles's memoirs of the Rev. Charles Buck. Mr. Nott's sermon on the idolatry of the Hindoos. Rev. Mr. Stanford's sermon on the death of Mr. Hunter. Death's defence of his character, a poem. List of late publications"

The editor engages that the work shall consist wholly of original matter, thereby imposing upon himself a task not a little arduous—he however has considerable industry, which may enable him to overcome difficulties, arising not so much from any consideration of his own powers, which are very respectable, but from the tenor of the subjects, and the defect of materials.

A Narrative of a Tour of observation, made during the summer of 1817, by James Monroe, President of the U. States, through the north eastern, and north western departments of the union: with a view to the examination of their several military defences, with an appendix. Philadelphia, published by Mitchell and Ames. 1818.

This work will be referred to, at some future day, as a memorial of the important public event which it particularizes. Future presidents will do well to imitate the example of Mr. Monroe in visiting the several states, the interests of which they can best appreciate on a personal examination. All who have participated in the ceremonies of the late tour, will no doubt be desirous of possessing a record of those proceedings, the addresses delivered, and civilities interchanged, for reference at a future day, which will be found embodied in this little volume.

We have received a supply of London journals including those of December. They are occupied chiefly with accounts of the funeral ceremonies at the interment of the late Princess Charlotte, and contain but little new intelligence; we have however made extracts.

In the London Magazines is announced the intended disposal, by auction, early in the spring, of the whole of the stock of copper plates, with their impressions, of the Messrs. Boydell, lately deceased. These gentlemen have been long universally celebrated for their

famous collection of engravings, by the first artists, after the most capital pictures of the principal masters, of which above 900 are from the Italian school, 60 of these being after Raphael, as many after Titian, several after the Caracci, Corregio, Dominichino, Guido, Parmegiano, Salvator Rosa &c. &c., about 400 from the German school after Albert Durer, Hans Holbein, Eilchemer, Sir P. Lely, Sir Godfrey Kneller &c. &c.: nearly 200 from the Flemish, of which above 60 are after Rubens, upwards of 40 after Ostade and Teniers, and many after F. Hals, Sneyders &c. &c.: about 300 from the Dutch, among which are 60 after Vandylke, 70 after Reinbrandt, 40 after Berghem, and many after Cuyp, G. Dow, Ruisdael, Schalker &c.; above 800 from the French, of which upwards of 300 are after the pictures of Claud Lorraine, above 50 after the Poussins, many after Callot, Goupy, Le Brun, Le Clerc, Rigaud, Vanloo, Vernet, Watteau, &c.; and of the English school a very extensive series, among which are 82 after Sir Joshua Reynolds, 60 after Mr. West, beside a great number after Barrett, Beechy, Barry, Copley, Gainsborough, Hoppner, Lawrence, Morland, Northcote, Opie, Romney, Sandby, Smirke, Westall, Wilkie &c.; in all about 2500. Of the collected works, those of Hogarth are particularly specified, as meriting the attention of judges of the fine arts, and the Houghton collection,

consisting of some of the capital works of the most eminent painters of all the various schools of Europe, engraved by the best artists of England, such as Earlom, V. Green, Bartolozzi, Sharp, &c.; the original pictures are in the possession of the Emperor of Russia; Liber Veritatis, or a collection of designs of Claude Lorraine, consisting of 300 Plates, engraved by Earlom, and a collection of designs by Guercino, engraved by Bartolozzi, on 156 large folio plates.

But the most magnificent series of engravings is that designed to illustrate the works of Shakspeare. It consists of 96 large prints after pictures expressly painted for the work by the most eminent masters, and all engraved by the best English artists. Amid this vast collection, many of the plates, from the quantity of impressions thrown off, will be found comparatively inferior; indeed it would have been better that, after a certain number of copies, the plates had been destroyed, so as to preserve unimpaired the credit of the different artists concerned.

The Shakspeare collection is, we understand, in the best condition, and formed at an expense unequalled by individuals of any age or country, being not less than 450,000 dollars. The plan was certainly eminently patriotic, at once to illustrate the first English poet, and promote a school of historical painting.

POETRY.

JAVAN POETRY.

(FROM RAFFLES' "HISTORY OF JAVA.")

The *Brata Yudha*, or *The War of Wo*, an epic poem, is said to be the most popular and celebrated work in that language. Of this poem a great part has been translated by Mr. Raffles, with the assistance of a learned native; and of the remainder he has given an analysis. It contains 719 *pada*, or metrical stanzas, of four long lines each, and is said to have been composed by a learned Pundit, in the year 1079. The subject of the poem is a destructive war, in consequence of a rejection of the proposal of the incarnate Dewa, or deity, Krestna, to divide the kingdom of Astina between the Kurawa and Pandawa. The Kurawa are ultimately defeated, and the kingdom of Astina recovered by the Pandawa. There are in this epic of *The War of Wo* many occurrences which remind us of the *Iliad*.—The following Passage, which describes the faithful Satia Wati wandering over the field of battle in search of the dead body of Salia, abounds with some of the finest touches of nature: it was put into En-

glish poetry by the Rev. Thomas Raffles, of Liverpool, from the verbal translation of our author, to which it closely adheres.

603. "Wearied with fruitless search, and in despair

To find the object of her pious care,
Her murder'd lord, who on the battle plain
Lay all neglected 'mid the thousand slain,
She drew the dagger from its sheath of rest,
Intent to plunge it in her heaving breast.
Just then, as if in pity to her grief,
Flash'd the red lightning to the maid's relief,
And show'd with horrid glare the bloody way
To where her husband's mangled body lay.

604. "Another flash, indulgent from the skies,
Points to the spot where Salia's carriage lies.
And Salia's self, whom living she ador'd,
The bleeding body of her murder'd lord:
The richest flowers by heavenly influence shed
Their sweetest odours o'er his honoured head.
The muttering thunder mourn'd his early tomb,
And heaven in showers bewail'd the hero's doom

605. "With eager grasp the lived corpse
she press'd

In frantic wildness to her throbbing breast;
Tried every art of love that might beguile
Its sullen features to one cheerful smile;
Kiss'd those dear lips so late of coral red,
As if unconscious that the soul had fled;
Then in her folded arms his head she rais'd,
And long on those beloved features gazed,
With *siri* juice his pallid lips she dyed,
And to his wounds its healing balm applied;
While with the skirt of her embroidered vest,
She wip'd the blood-drops from his mangled
breast.

606. "Ah! then, my princely lord, whom
I have found

'Bleeding and mangled on this cursed ground!
'Why are thy lips in sullen silence seal'd
'To her who sought thee on this battle field?
'Wilt thou not speak, my love, my lord, my
all,
'Or still in vain must Satia Wati call?
'Say, shall my copious tears in torrents flow,
'And thus express my agony and woe?
'How shall I move thee, by what art beguile
'The ghastly air of that unmeaning smile?"

607. "Thus soft and tender were the
words she pour'd,

To move the pity of her murder'd lord;
But ah! no sound the unconscious dead re-
turn'd,
No fire of love within his bosom burn'd;
While at each pause a death-like stillness
stole

O'er the deep anguish of the mourner's soul.
'And was it thus to bow thy honoured head
'Amid the thousands of the mangled dead,
'That on that fatal morning thou didst glide
'With gentle footsteps from thy consort's side?
'And to reach the glorious realms above
'Without the faithful partner of thy love?
'But earth has lost its fleeting charms for me,
'And happy spirit, I will follow thee!

608. "Oh meet and bear me o'er that fatal
stone,

'Nor let me pass it, trembling and alone.
'Though Widadaris shall obey thy call,
'Yet keep for me a place above them all.
'To whom but me does that first place belong,
'Who sought and found thee 'mid this ghastly
throng;
'And who, unable to survive thy doom,
'Thus shed my blood and share thy honour'd
Tomb?"

610. "Then with a steady hand the noble
maid

Drew from its peaceful sheath the gleaming
blade;
From her fair bosom tore the embroidered
vest,
And plunged it deep within her heaving
breast,
Rich was the blood that issued from the
wound
And stream'd like liquid gold upon the
ground.

611. "And while the ebbing tide of life
remain'd

And thought and reason were awhile sus-
tain'd,
She call'd her maiden with her feeble breath,
And thus address'd her from the arms of
death:—

612. "Oh! when my spirit soars to realms
above,

'Take this my last request to those I love:
'Tell them to think of Satia Wati's fate,
'And oft the story of her love relate;
'Then o'er her woes the tender heart shall
sigh,

'And the big tear-drop roll from pity's eye.'

614. "Ah! my lov'd mistress," cried the
faithful maid,

'In every scene by thee I gladly staid,
'Whate'er the state of being thou must
know,

'Thy faithful maiden will partake it too.
'What hand but mine the cooling stream
shall pour,

'Or bathe the feet of her whom I adore?"

617. "Strong in despair, and starting
from the ground,

She drew the dagger from her mistress'
wound,

With deadly aim she plunged it in her breast,
And with her mistress sunk in endless rest."

THE PROGRESS OF LEARNING.

From the Edinburgh Magazine.

THE fatal Morn arrives, and, oh!
To School the blub'ring Youth must go,
Before the Muses' hallow'd shrine,
Each joy domestic to resign,
No more as erst, at break of day
To brush the early dews away,
But in ideal range to fly
Thro' fancied fields of poetry:
Now gives mamma her last caressing,
And fond papa bestows his blessing;
Their soft endearments scarcely o'er,
The chaise drives rattling from the door.

In gay description could I shine,
Or were thy numbers, Homer, mine,
Then should my muse harmonious show
How fast they journey'd, or how slow;
How from the east Aurora rose,
With fingers red, and redder nose;
Or, at the purple dawn's approach,
Rose Phæbus in his painted coach;
But, to be brief, we'll rest content,
With only saying—off he went.

So when, from out the Grecian fire
Of old, Æneas bore his sire,
The hero left with many a tear
Those plains, by memory made more dear,
And still in absence would his mind,
Recall the joys it left behind,
Still bless those happier days, ere Greece
O'erturn'd the gentle reign of peace,

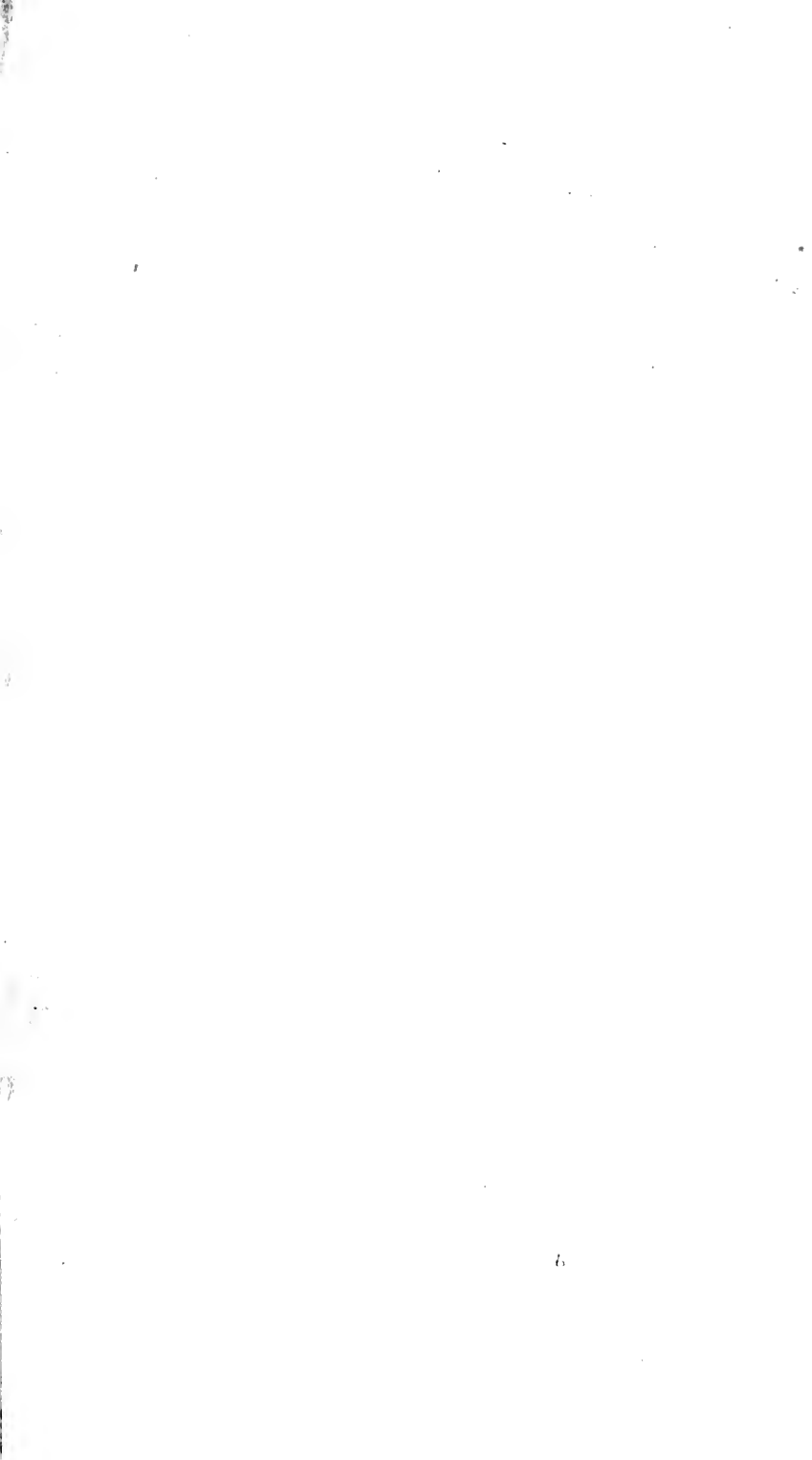
When Heav'n propitious smil'd on Priam,
 —Sed diverticulo in viam—
 Our youth the joys of home forgot,
 Now grows contented with his lot;
 On Virgil's sweets can dwell with pleasure,
 With Tully pass his hours of leisure;
 In verses play with skill his part,
 Nay—say the Iliad all by heart.
 Oft will he launch aloud in praise
 Of earlier Greece's happier days,
 When kings liv'd peaceful in a cottage,
 When children fed on sooty pottage,
 Tho' now a-days they'll play their parts
 As well on syllabubs and tarts,
 When ev'ry hero was as tall
 As Gog and Magog in Guildhall;
 And by their prowess he can guess,
 The Romans surely were no less.
 He's not (if authors rightly tell us,)
 One of those harum-scarum fellows,
 Who seek, and know no other pleasure,
 Than that of eating and of leisure;
 Who think the beauties of a classic,
 Enough to make a very ass sick;
 Who know no joys beyond the chace,
 No recreation but a race;
 By him far nobler joys are found
 In Tully's arguments profound;
 No dainties please him like the sweet
 Of Homer's compound epithets.
 At length on Isis' banks he views,
 The walls below'd by ev'ry muse,
 Those walls where gen'rous souls pursue
 The arduous prize to virtue due,
 And school-men from the world withdrawn,
 Dispute o'er sausages and brawn;
 But here, alas! the ruthless train
 Of studies new perplex his brain;
 He now of nothing talks but statics,
 Geometry, and mathematics,
 Crosses the Asinorum Pons,
 Solves the parallelepipedons,
 Explains the rays of light by prisms,
 And arguments by syllogisms,
 And night and day his mem'ry crams
 Brimful of parallelograms;
 By A's and B's exact defines
 The wond'rous miracles of lines;
 Ask you their names? I might as soon
 Reckon the people in the moon.
 Had I an hundred brazen tongues,
 An hundred sturdy carters' lungs,
 An hundred mouths to tell them o'er,
 'Twould take a century or more:
 Talk of a flow'r of various dyes,
 He'll prove you must not trust your eyes;
 For what to us seems black or white,
 Is only diff'rent rays of light;
 And tho' some untaught writers tell,
 That men had once the pow'r to smell,

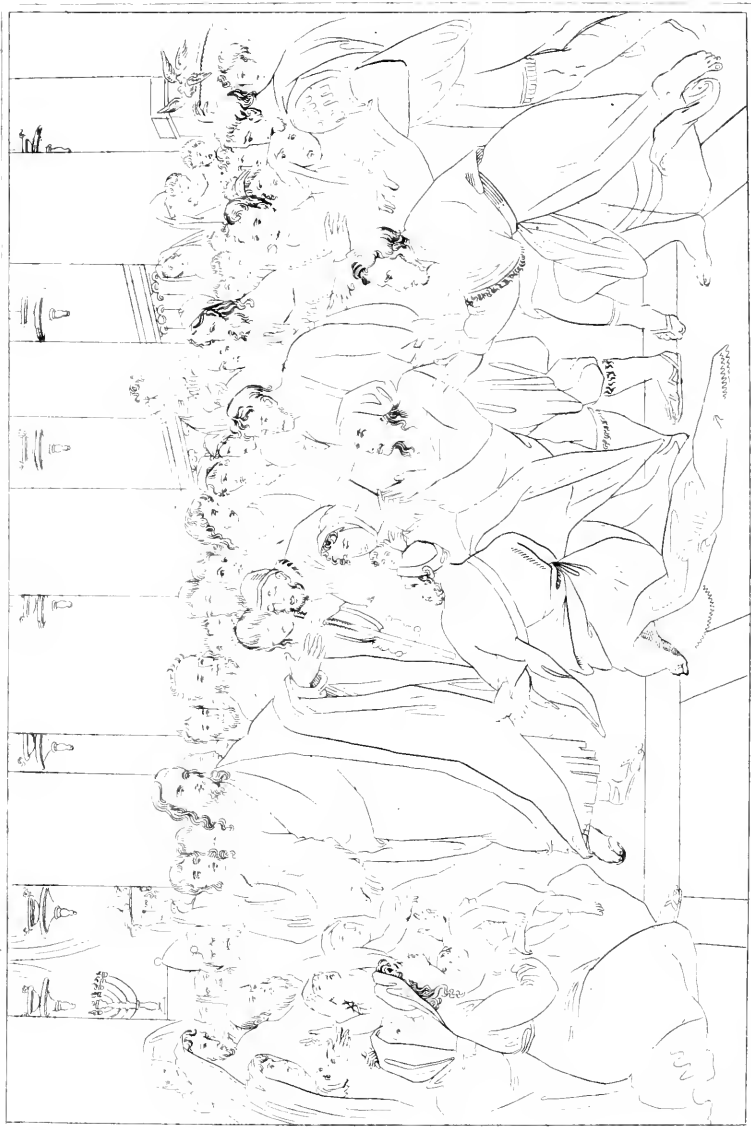
Our modern scholar plainly shows,
 'Tis but a tickling in the nose:
 By solid proofs he can assure ye,
 Non dari vacuum naturæ—
 As well by demonstration show
 Quod nihil fit ex nihilo—
 That when earth's convex face you tread,
 Your feet move slower than your head;
 Solve any knotty point with ease,
 And prove the moon is not green cheese.

But fast the rolling years glide on,
 And life's far better half is gone;
 He soon to other thoughts aspires,
 Accepts a living, and retires,
 And soon immur'd in pars'nage neat
 Enjoys his peaceable retreat.
 As necessary to our story,
 You'll ask was he a whig or tory?
 But in this weighty point indeed
 Historians are not all agreed;
 However, to avoid all pother,
 We'll grant he was or one or t'other;
 Although, perhaps, he wisely chose
 That side whence most preferment rose.
 He now directs his eager search
 Thro' ev'ry era of the church;
 With cambrie band, and double chin
 Exhorts his flock to flee from sin;
 Bids them all evil ways eschew,
 And always pay their tythes when due;
 Declares all sublunary joys
 Are visions and delusive toys;
 Bids worth neglected rear its head,
 And fills the sinner's soul with dread;
 Whilst gaping rusties hear with wonder,
 His length of words and voice of thunder!

Long time his flock beheld him shine,
 A zealous and a wise divine,
 Until, as ebbing life retires,
 A dean'ry crowns his last desires:
 Behold him now devoid of care,
 Snug seated in his elbow chair!
 He cracks his jokes, he eats his fill,
 On Sunday preaches,—if he will.
 Solves doubts, as fast as others start 'em,
 By arguments *secundum artem*;
 Now puzzles o'er in warm debate,
 Each weighty point of church and State,
 Or tells o'er, in facetious strain,
 The pranks of early youth again;
 Recalls to mem'ry school dissaters,
 Unfinished tasks, and angry masters.

As erst to him, O! heav'nly maid,
 Learning to me impart thy aid;
 Oh! teach my feet like his to stray
 Along preferment's flow'ry way;
 And if thy hallowed shrine before,
 I e'er thy ready aid implore,
 Make me, O! sphere-descended queen,
 A bishop, or at least—a dean.





CHRIST HEALING THE SICK IN THE TEMPLE

Published weekly by the American Bible Society

Published for the Analytic Magazine March 1898. Pub. by W. L. Thomas, Phila.

THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

MARCH, 1818.

ART. I. *An Essay on Grammar; the principles of which are exemplified in an English Grammar; by James P. Wilson, D. D. Pastor of the First Presbyterian Church, in the City of Philadelphia.* “Grammatici certant, et adhuc sub iudice lis est.”

Hor.

GRAMMATICAL knowledge is the true foundation upon which all literature, properly so called, ought to be raised. The source of our acquirement, as well of a vernacular idiom as of any other, is imitation—an instinct, that leads to the attainment of a correct proficiency, only when the models on which it forms itself are unexceptionably pure. But, it rarely happens that these are such as can be relied upon. The parents of Cicero, we are told, were, on this account, careful to confine the conversation of their son to persons speaking a pure latinity, and would on no account permit a defective dialect to intermix with his intercourse. The nurses of the family, it is recorded, spoke the language of Rome immaculately, which was considered an indispensable requisite for the imitation of the future orator. But, in spite of every precaution, error will interfere, and be insensibly adopted. Books, from which so considerable a portion of our knowledge is derived, are not free from ungrammatical construction, while speech is ever liable to numerous deformities from negligence and corruption. It is necessary, on this account, to establish some standard for the observance of all who claim pretensions to a liberal education, and as a defence against barbarism, which might otherwise embarrass those who seek to express themselves with propriety and accuracy. The mind requires the assistance of rules to enable it to judge of phrases and forms of construction with any degree of certainty, and to have these rules illustrated by examples, in order to render them familiar. Hence the utility of the labours of the grammarian.

On the other hand, a critical skill has sometimes been wasted in cases where the obvious line of propriety and good sense needed neither extraordinary subtlety nor parade of learning in the research; such probably, as Quintilian had in view, when he ob-

served, "it becomes an able grammarian to know, that there are some things not worth his knowledge."

Dr. Wilson's *Essay* is in part a corollary from the principles laid down by his predecessors in the same path, Sanctius, Scioppius, Vossius, Monboddo, Harris, Horne Tooke, Kaimes, &c. In cases where there is a collision of sentiment, he has the merit of improving upon these, summing up briefly, and deciding judiciously between the opinions left us by the most eminent of philologists, ancient and modern. In this, he has been of practical service, contributing to render their speculations available in quarters where, otherwise, they must have remained probably unknown. We have, as yet, too few public libraries in which such writers ought to have place, and, from a variety of causes, they seldom find their way into private collections, principally because little encouragement is given to the cultivation of this branch of knowledge, and the belief is not sufficiently established, that money can never be better expended than in the purchase of erudition.

A considerable portion of the work under notice is devoted to tracing the affinities of speech, from a comparison of the grammars of different tongues. Dr. Wilson, as a scholar, may be expected to be intimately acquainted with the Hebrew, Greek, Latin and English languages; and his qualifications eminently fitted him for this task. It would have swollen his little volume beyond the present intention of the author perhaps, to embrace other sources of inquiry, still further illustrative of some important points, but it is worthy of his notice to remark, that other tongues present a fertile field to his investigation, such as the Arabick, the Sanscrit, the Bengalee, &c. Of the Sanscrit, Sir Wm. Jones has said,* that "it is more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more excellently refined than either." The analogy which it bears to other languages is thus stated by that great philosopher, whose critical knowledge of the languages mentioned, with all the varieties of Hindu dialect, entitle his opinion to a degree of authority which the present disquisition is far from claiming.

'That the first race of Persians and Indians, to whom we may add the Romans and Greeks, the Goths and old Egyptians, or Ethiops, originally spoke the same language, and professed the same popular faith, is capable, in my humble opinion, of incontestible proof; that the Jews and Arabs, the Assyrians or second Persian race, the people who spoke Syriac, and a numerous tribe of Abyssinians, used one primitive dialect, is, I believe undisputed, and I am sure indisputable.'

To demonstrate this proposition would require all the learning of that celebrated writer, which it is not attempted here to supply. A few words are before us, that may afford an idea in support of his position.

* Asiatic Researches.

<i>Sanscrit.</i>	<i>Latin.</i>	<i>Persian.</i>	<i>German.</i>	<i>English.</i>
rit	rite		recht	rightly.
matara	mater	mader	muder	{ mother maternal
pada	pede abl. <i>Gr.</i> Πῶδες	pā	fuss	
danta	dente abl.	dindan		{ foot pedal.
vidhavā	vidua	bivah	wittive	{ teeth dental.
nava	novus	nu	new	a widow. new.

Our limits do not admit of an extension of this branch of investigation. A comparison of Wilkins's Sanscrit grammar with the Greek and Latin would furnish remarkable instances of analogy in structure as well as words, *e. g.* the distinctions of the feminine and neuter gender are the same in Sanscrit and Latin:

<i>Sans.</i>	divyah,	divyā	divyam.
<i>Lat.</i>	divinus,	divina	divinum.

The Sanscrit signs of comparison are essentially the same as in the Latin, Persic, and Gothic.

<i>Sans.</i>	guru, heavy;	gurutar, heavier;	gurutama, heaviest.
<i>Lat.</i>	gravis.	gravior.	gravissimus.
<i>Pers.</i>	guran.	gurāntar.	guranterin.
<i>Germ.</i>	schwer.	schwerer.	schwerste.

If Varro and the ancient Etymologists be correct in considering the Latin as a derivative of the Greek; or if, as we read, the Pelasgi planted colonies both in the Peloponnesus, and on the coast of Italy, many of the analogies in the Latin will be found to include the Greek terms also.

In Europe, we meet in most of the universities with professorships of Hebrew, Arabic, and the Oriental languages. We know no person so well qualified for such a chair in this country as Dr. Wilson.

It will be found, on investigation, that, as Monboddo remarks, most modern tongues are clearly derived from the Greek and the Latin. Our language abounds with Greek etymology, and is compounded altogether of it and Roman, with a mixture of Danish, Saxon and Norman originals, imparted to it by successive incursions into the dominions of our British ancestors, and amalgamated during the conquests and settlements of the invaders. Britain was long a Roman colony. The victories of Julius Cæsar established the administration of the laws in the Roman tongue, and contributed to imprint upon a nation then barbarous and unrefined, devoid consequently of a nomenclature for articles of luxury and convenience, fresh appellations and new characters, imported with the objects to which they were applied. The Norman conquest produced similar and later effects.

How much farther the origin of our language may be traced, is perhaps involved in too much obscurity to be of interest beyond the indulgence of a liberal curiosity. Cadmus by some is supposed to have been the first who introduced the use of letters

into Greece, while others maintain that the alphabet which he brought from Phœnicia was only different in dialect from that used by the ancient inhabitants of Greece. The Phœnician alphabet consisted only of sixteen letters, to which Palamedes afterwards added four, and Simonides of Melos, the same number. From this Phœnician alphabet, introduced into Greece by Cadmus at least three thousand years ago, and from Greece dispersed over the western part of the then known world, all the alphabets now prevalent in Europe are supposed to be derived. The most satisfactory method of determining the existence of ancient characters, is by reference to antique inscriptions; such as those on the Arundel marbles at Oxford, and the Elgin marbles in the British museum. These, with the manuscripts dug from the ruins of Herculaneum, are standing evidences, preferable to any other tradition of a fabulous age. The Greek inscriptions on the Elgin marbles are at once striking to those versed in Grecian literature, producing an effect upon the mind somewhat analogous to that of the discovery of truth, by a coincidence of conclusions in mathematical science.

To follow the doctor through all the analogies of speech in those languages which are the subjects of his investigation, would probably be deemed more curious than useful by the general reader. Grammar is a subject not to be dismissed in a few pages, nor does it admit of that popular view, in its more recondite parts, which can recommend it to those who will not take the trouble to think profoundly.

On the subject of quantity and accent, there are perhaps no better practical guides than the *Gradus ad Parnassum*, the Greek *The-saurus*, and *Walker's pronunciation* attached to the words in Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, a work now printing in this city. Habit renders the acquisition of the proper accentuation in our language less difficult of course than in the dead languages, yet, corruptions have led to numerous inaccuracies, which no abstract rules can remedy, and are only to be rectified perhaps by referring to a work expressly adapted to the different cases that arise. In Latin, the practice of accustoming youth to the composition of hexameters and pentameters, by the aid of the *Gradus ad Parnassum*, and, after some proficiency in these, extending the exercises to the various measures that occur in the Lyric Poets, are perhaps the best methods that can be devised for the correction of inaccurate readings in the classics, which so commonly occur in schools.*

Whilst on this subject, it may not be irrelevant to notice the systems of grammar used in our colleges and academies, because few ever enjoy the opportunity of carrying their researches be-

* Many other advantages, beside this, a most important one, belong to a facility in composing Latin verse. It brings youth more narrowly to watch the beauties, and imitate the perfections of the great Archetypes, and improves the sensibility of the ear to rhythm. The powers of imagination are educed in original flights of a muse otherwise dormant.

yond the pale of a teacher's recommendation, and, being often restricted to these, it is of importance that they should be as explicit and intelligible as possible. The Port Royal Grammar is perhaps the most satisfactory to the learned, but it is too prolix to place in the hands of the student. The Eton Greek and Latin grammars are unquestionably the best that have appeared, level to the capacity of the beginner, and found, by extensive experience, to meet the wishes of the instructor more completely than any others. Ross's Grammars, which have been introduced here, are defective, inasmuch as they do not carry out the conjugations of the verbs, leaving the young, for whom such systems of grammar are expressly intended, without sufficient guide to help them through the various terminations; the article too, instead of being placed first, as in the Eton, and accompanying the declensions of the nouns, as it ought to do, (for the sake of familiarity,) is postponed till the subject of nouns is dismissed.

Though Dr. Wilson's comparisons are drawn principally from the grammars of the Greek and the Latin, yet his conclusions point to a syllabus of English grammar, appended to his work, in which he has adopted chiefly the most correct views of his predecessors. Murray and Lowth will no doubt still continue to be used in schools, it is as a philosophical inquiry, that this "Essay on Grammar" has its merit. The definition given of a verb, is perhaps too metaphysical when it expresses that,

'Whilst it implies time, it predicates, connects an attribute, or expresses an action or inclination.'

The desire of novelty should never tempt an author to disturb a settled acceptation, unless thoroughly persuaded that he can introduce amendment. How much better is that simple passage in our common grammars, founded on Lowth;

'A verb expresses the being, doing, or suffering of a person, or thing.'

Here there is no compound idea of time, (altogether extraneous) till we arrive at the analysis of the tenses, and none of that laboured Aristotelian involution with which the schoolmen seemed to have aimed to beset philosophy, till, happily, the labours of Reid, Stewart and their followers, rescued us from their perplexities. Were we to descend to particulars, we might give instances of the necessity of an attentive study of the philosophy of the human mind, as connected with the operations of speech, to all those who discuss subjects of grammar, but we must hasten to another branch of inquiry. To such as are desirous of pursuing philological investigation methodically so as to gain a more complete insight into the origin and nature of speech, with its various ramifications, we would recommend Dr. Gillies's Analysis of Aristotle, Adam Smith's Inquiry into the Origin and Progress of Language, prefixed to his Theory of Moral Sentiments, Burnet (Lord Monboddo's) Theory of Language, Tooke's *Επεα πλεγόμενα* or Diversions of Purley, Kaimes's Sketches of Man, and his Elements of Criticism: Harris's Hermes, Rollin's Belles-Lettres, and Blair's

Lectures on Belles Lettres and Rhetoric. The earlier writers may be consulted with advantage by professed linguists; and Quintilian and Longinus will be read and prized by every classical scholar; but, of many subsequent authors who have treated of this subject, (excepting always those mentioned here and in the former part of this article) it may be observed, that, to consume much time in tracing their devious and mazy labyrinths, would scarcely be prudent in any but those destined to the ministry of the gospel, or devoted to the instruction of youth.

To afford a general illustration of the principles of language, we shall now proceed to consider their application, particularly to our own, which it behoves all sedulously to cultivate, and, as vigilantly to preserve against the encroachments of a barbarous idiom, and the violations of a false grammar.

Words are divided by grammarians into certain classes, called parts of speech, under the following titles, viz. Article, noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, participle, adverb, preposition, interjection, and conjunction. The subdivisions are well laid down by Murray, and, to vary them, would be but to introduce novelty and hazard precision.

Every subject, about which our minds can be employed in thinking, or which can be a subject of our knowledge, must relate to the objects which exist, either in reality, or in the imagination; or to actions, operations, or energies which these produce on themselves, or on one another. Now, the sole end of language being to communicate our knowledge, its divisions of words must correspond with the divisions of our knowledge; the principal business of which is reduced to two heads; first, to exhibit names for all the objects with which we are acquainted, that we may be able to distinguish and recognize them, when mention is made of them by ourselves or others; and secondly, to denote the actions, operations, and energies of these objects. The names are expressed by what grammarians call nouns,* from the French word *nom*, which has its root in the Greek *ονομα*. The operations are denoted by what they term verbs, (Latin *verbum*, French *verbe*.) The other parts of speech explain, modify, extend, restrict, connect or disjoin the noun and the verb. The noun and the verb, then, are the main pillars of discourse, while the other parts of speech are their appendages only.

Before we can communicate our knowledge, we must have names for all the objects about which our knowledge is exercised, and the same names, by common consent, must be imposed on the same objects. The ground-work of all languages is the nouns they contain, and a language is perfect in respect of them, when every substance material or immaterial, about which the people who use the language, have occasion to speak or write, has ob-

* Dr. Wilson is right in dis-cavling the term *substantive*. As applied to objects of the understanding, which form so numerous a class of our ideas, it would seem to imply the doctrine of materialism, or at least the want of precision in language, as being attributable to those employing the term.

tained a name. If their knowledge shall be enlarged, that is, if they shall acquire more ideas of objects than they have names to express, their language will be inadequate to the purposes of ready communication, till they have affixed names to these new objects, and added these to their vocabulary.

From this view of the subject, it appears to be requisite that, every object about which men may speak or write, should have a particular name, by which it may be distinguished from all other objects; and upon this principle, every mineral, every plant, every animal, and every part of every animal, should have a distinct name assigned to it, which would increase the nouns to a number beyond all computation, and would render it impossible for the longest life to become acquainted with them.

Had every object in nature been perfectly different from every other object, language must have assigned a name to every object. But nature has formed very few, if any, of her objects, perfectly different from all other objects. She has reduced her productions into classes; and all the individuals of every class, in many particulars, resemble each other. Thus the word *plant*, expresses the common qualities of all vegetables; *animal*, the common qualities of all living creatures.

These comprehensive terms are called *genera*, and are divided, the former, *plant*, into trees, shrubs, grasses, &c.; the latter, *animal*, into men, horses, cattle, sheep, &c. These subdivisions are called *species*, and are often divided again into inferior species, or they become themselves *genera* to other species. Thus *trees* are divided into oaks, ashes, elms; *men* into white, black, &c.

Language takes advantage of this arrangement of nature, in order to abridge the number of its nouns, and give names only to classes of objects, making one name denote a whole class. Thus, *trees* expresses a whole *genus* of plants; oak, ash, elm, each a whole species. Man is denominated by separate names assigned to individuals, and occasionally, though rarely other animals. This necessity extends to countries and cities. Thus Italy, Rome, Alexander, Bucephalus, are all individuals, whom, the stations they held, or parts they performed in society, and the frequency of the occasions on which it was requisite to mention them, compelled language to distinguish by special names, to obviate ambiguous and disagreeable circumlocutions or descriptions, in order to make them known. From this it follows that a grammatical division of nouns into *common* and *proper*, was absolutely necessary. The *common* nouns are the names of classes of individuals; the *proper* nouns are all names of individuals. The noun *man*, for example, does not denote some man particularly specified, but any individual of a body. *Cæsar*, on the other hand, is the name of a particular man; and is restricted to signify him alone.

The distinctions of number, in most languages, are signified by some change in the terminations of the nouns, according as it is required to express one, of the singular number, or many, of the plural number; and when any particular number of individuals.

as ten, twenty, or thirty is to be expressed, they add to the plural the word significant of that number. The Greek language contains a particular form of a plural, called a *dual*, which is employed when two individuals of a species are denoted, a peculiarity that evinces rather the richness of the language of Greece, than any necessity for the purposes of communication, for it does not show cause for the adoption of a dual, more than of a triple, a quadruple, or any other plural number.

Beside their capacity of denoting difference of number, nouns are susceptible of other modifications. Something may belong to them, or be a part of them, may support them, or be taken from them, may go along with them, be contained in them, or be got through them. A provision for expressing these was necessary in the construction of language, and hence arose the varied terminations termed cases. Sometimes, instead of these, modern languages employ a preposition prefixed, as an auxiliary. The Greeks employed five terminations or cases in their singular, two in their dual, and four in their plural number. The Romans employed sometimes six, but generally five, in their singular number, and four in their plural. In the Italian, French, and Spanish languages, no cases appear; in the English, grammarians have agreed upon a *nominative*, expressive of an object simply considered, *possessive*, signifying possession or belonging to, and *objective* when the noun is the object of a verb, thus:

Nom. Book, answering to the nominative case in Latin.

Pos. Book's,—to the genitive case in Latin.

Obj. Book,—to the accusative case in Latin.

This is more particularly striking in the pronoun, whosoever:

Nom. Whosoever.

Pos. Whosoever's.

Obj. Whomsoever.

Variety of gender is another peculiarity belonging to nouns. The genders of nature are two, the male and the female; but all languages, almost, have instituted another, termed, the neuter gender, signifying neither of these, or an object without specific attribute of male or female. Difference of sex is discernible only in animals, and though it has been extended to plants, yet this is so little apparent that no language whatever has yet adopted it. In the languages of Greece and Rome three genders are used, and almost all their adjectives are formed with their terminations corresponding to these genders. In the languages of Italy, France, and Spain, two genders only have been admitted; all their neuter nouns have been made either masculine or feminine, and two genders have been allotted to their adjectives, suited to the classification of their nouns. The English language possesses the merit of being an exact copy of nature in respect of gender, and has no inflections of the adjectives, which unquestionably tends to promote simplicity in language. Some few nouns are distinguished in their genders by their terminations, as prince, princess, lion, lioness, hero, heroine; administrator, administratrix, &c. But the chief use of

gender in English is in the pronoun of the third person, which must agree in that respect with the noun for which it stands.

Articles, and adjectives, are employed to restrict and explain nouns. Articles are little words prefixed to nouns, or to other parts of speech used as nouns, to enlarge or circumscribe their meaning.

The article *a* is called *indefinite*, because it does not specify the object particularly, but refers it to its species only. The article *the* is called *definite*, because it specifies, and discriminates the object to which it is prefixed from all others of the same species. In respect of articles, our own is perhaps the most perfect language in the world. The Greek, the French, the Italian, and the Spanish, possess only the definite article. The Greeks supplied the place of the indefinite article by the absence of the definite; the Italians, the Spaniards, and the French, by the adjective *one*. The Romans neither had articles, nor supplied the place of them by any expedient. To this is to be attributed the hesitation and suspense to which the reader is sometimes liable, in perusing their splendid, but occasionally equivocal language. A few examples will illustrate these remarks. The following phrase, *amicus imperatoris*, admits no fewer than four different interpretations. It may denote either a friend of a commander, a friend of the commander, the friend of the commander, or the friend of a commander. The Latin reader must collect from the context which of these interpretations it is proper to prefer. He can receive no assistance from the words themselves. The Greek language would distinguish the first sense by the words φίλος γεμενος, the second, φίλος τῷ ηγεμονος. the third, by ο φίλος τῷ ηγεμονος, and the last, by ο φίλος ηγεμονος. The French would express the first meaning by, *un Ami d'un chef*, the second by, *un Ami du chef*, the third by, *l'ami du chef*, and the last, by *l'ami d'un chef*. Again, the phrase *præbe mihi panem* may be translated either, give me bread, that is, bread in opposition to sugar or wine, or, give me the bread, which is used at the table. The Greek language can distinguish these meanings, and, to convey the former, would employ the words δὸς μοι ἄρτον, but to convey the latter, the words δὸς μοι τὸν ἄρτον. The French would express the former by, *donnez moi du pain*, the latter by *donnez moi le pain*. Between adjectives (*adjectus* Lat.) and participles (*particeps* Lat.) there are only these differences, that the latter have their roots in verbs, the nature of which they participate and denote the additional idea of time; accordingly participles are divided into participles present and past, as expressive of the present or past time; both serve to exhibit the qualities and attributes, and to define or illustrate the meaning of nouns. Thus the qualities of men are white, black, young, old, good, bad, &c. which qualities express attributes, tending to describe or distinguish the object of which we speak, to characterize it, and to discriminate it from all others of its species. All adjectives that denote qualities susceptible of augmentation or diminution, and almost all qualities are so, are suscep-

tible of comparison. Grammarians have fixed upon three degrees of comparison; the *positive*, being the simple state of an adjective, without augmentation or diminution, the *comparative*, by which is signified, that, of two qualities compared, one is greater than the other; and the *superlative*, implying that of any larger number of qualities than two compared, one is the greatest among them. These stages have been found sufficient for all the purposes of social communication; and, if more minuteness were sometimes necessary, such as twice, thrice, a hundred times, greater, it was thought preferable to notify them by concomitant words, rather than to encumber language by adopting more stages of comparison than were commonly requisite. The ancient languages express these degrees of comparison chiefly by adding terminations to the adjectives themselves. The modern languages incline more to signify them by auxiliary words.

Pronouns, as their name implies, stand for nouns, being so used in order to prevent too frequent and disagreeable repetitions; a tautology harsh and disgusting. Hence they are a source of very great convenience and variety in language, without which, the verbs of all languages would have much less variety of termination than they possess. Suppose the contents of the following sentence were to be expressed without the use of pronouns "Cæsar loved Cæsar's *his* country, Cæsar's *his* family, and Cæsar's *his* friends; but his ruling passion was ambition, and Cæsar *he* sacrificed to ambition, all Cæsar's *his* attachments, and all Cæsar's *his* duties:" the repetition of nouns would have been intolerable; and suppose again, Cæsar, in addressing the senate, to have had to couch a letter in the following terms.

"Cæsar *I* consents *consent* to disband Cæsar's *my* army, provided the senate will order Cæsar's *my* enemy, Pompey, to dismiss Pompey's *his* army. Cæsar *I* cannot come to Rome in safety, without Cæsar's *my* army, while Pompey *he* retains Pompey's *his* army near the city.

It follows, that verbs would in such cases, have been restricted to the third part of the variety of terminations they now possess. They could have retained only the terminations peculiar to the third persons of the singular and plural numbers. Because then the noun requiring the third person of the verb to follow it, and the noun being always repeated without any substitution of the pronoun, the first and second persons would have been altogether unnecessary, and of course, must have been banished from the number of their inflexions.

The pronoun *I* is said to be of the first person, because the speaker or the writer employs it to denote himself, and to prevent the disagreeable repetition of his name. Thou, or you, is called the pronoun of the second person; because the speaker or the writer employs it to denote the person or thing addressed, for a like reason. He, she, it, are called pronouns of the third person; because they denote some third person or thing which has been formerly mentioned, but is not addressed. As the speakers, the persons

spoken to, and the other persons spoken of, may be many, so each of these persons has a plural number; we, ye, they. For the persons, numbers, cases and genders of personal pronouns, together with the pronominal adjectives and their inflections, we must refer to Lowth's Grammar, which contains, as far as we know, the most succinct account of them, disencumbered of intricate distinctions.

Having now finished the discussion of nouns and their dependents, articles, adjectives, participles, and pronouns, which denote the first great branch of our knowledge, the names and the nature of the objects that exist in matter or in the mind, we shall take a summary view of the verb and its dependant adverb, which denote the second great branch of our knowledge, the actions and energies, with their modifications of those objects, which they exert in respect of themselves or of one another.

The radical characteristic of the verb is action or energy. I read, think, walk, &c. are all expressions declaratory of some operation or exertion in that which is the nominative to the verb. Hence Lowth's simple, but appropriate definition, "to be, to do, or to suffer."

In analyzing the forms that verbs assume in expressing various energies, we find a division adopted by grammarians, into moods, or more properly modes (*modus*, Lat.) and tenses (*tensio*, Lat.) The indicative mode denotes the actual performance of the action, as *I write*. The subjunctive* expresses the power, inclination, or obligation of the agent to perform it, as *I may or can write*. The imperative exhibits the agent as entreating or commanding the performance of the action, as *write you*. The infinitive represents the action in general, without connexion with, or reference to, any agent, or any powers or dispositions depending upon him, as *to write*.

All time is divided into past, present, and future. Hence the formation of tenses, to express each of these, with their subdivisions. A new and ingenious method for arranging them in the minds of youth, has been devised by a Mr. J. Grout, of this city, on a scale expressive of the several distinctions. The mechanical use of the τοπικὴ τέχνη or *loci* of the ancients might here be advantageously introduced, by teaching youth, after uttering *the present*, to turn back and *take a retrospective view of the past*, after which, *to look forward to the future*, marking in each the stages of time by the tenses.

* This is sometimes called, in English grammar, *the conditional*; because it leaves the performance to be decided by circumstances not yet come into existence. It is of importance that philologists should agree in affixing a unity and precision to their terms, and desirable that the analogies of Greek and Latin be preserved, as far as the relative tongues admit.

Dr. Wilson appears not to have observed the form of the subjunctive mode alike in similar cases, where the conjunction *if* denotes its use.

P. 26 Syllabus of grammar. 'But if the verb *have* a subject.'

P. 119 Essay. 'If the verb *denotes* neither action nor suffering, it has received the appellation of neuter.'

This last sentence is, besides, incorrect syntax, as it renders a past tense the consecutive of a conditional action.

The very fleeting nature of present time made any subdivision of it both difficult and unnecessary; and for this reason, all polished languages, according to the general opinion of grammarians, have in any mode one tense only appropriated to express it. A similar opinion seems to have guided the construction of language for expressing future time. That future time, including a long duration, is divisible into parts, must have been perceived; but the total ignorance in which mankind are involved concerning actions that may take place in that period, must have deusted them of all disposition to mark differences of future time, or to provide language with terms for that purpose. When we express a determination to perform any action, to specify the day is sufficient, as "the examination will be held on Friday." The Greeks, indeed, sometimes, though very rarely, used a *paulo post futurum*. But the past time is that which the framers of all languages have been chiefly anxious to subdivide. Most of the actions which could be the subject of discourse or writing, must have taken place in past time, and to render the accounts of them more conspicuous and intelligible, it must often have been requisite to specify the progress, or the stages, of their execution. Hence the various divisions of past time, and the different tenses* significant of them, with which all languages, even the most imperfect, abound.

To establish one uniform system of modes and tenses, adapted to the analogies of different tongues, is among the desiderata of general grammar. All we can do here is to point it out, leaving the suggestion to be improved upon by those who prefer a practical utility in their pursuit to abstract discussions, however flattering to their learning and research.

All polished languages employ auxiliaries. Even the highly copious and varied language of Greece is not exempted from this expedient, but is obliged to introduce them to complete the modes of the perfect tense of the passive form. The Roman language is still more defective in the same form, and is necessitated to supply, by the aid of them, the perfect and pluperfect tenses, of both the indicative and subjunctive modes, beside several other parts of the verb. Several of the modern languages, and our own in particular, are so profuse in the use of auxiliaries, as to supersede, in a great degree, all inflexion, and to commit to them the communication of almost all the varieties of tenses and moods. If a language were complete in all its parts, there would be no need of auxiliaries, the only use of them being, as their name imports, to supply defects in the original structure of the verb, which, it seems, the most ingenious framers of inflexions have not been able to prevent.—The different terminations of the Greek verb amount to more than five hundred, those of the Latin verb, at least, to a hundred and forty; while all the variations of the English verb scarcely exceed

* Beside their tenses, the Greeks employed the *Aorist*, which denotes only that the action is completed, without distinguishing in what division of past time the completion took place, or whether the execution was pluperfect, perfect, or imperfect.

half a dozen. Yet the last is sufficient to denote, by the aid of two convenient little auxiliaries *to be*, and *to have*, (and sometimes, though not so principally, *do*, *let*, *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*,) every conception communicated by the numerous terminations of the two first.

As the business of the article, the adjective, and the participle, is to limit and qualify the noun; so the chief use of the adverb is to restrict and modify the verb. The circumstances of an action expressed by tenses and modes, are all of a nature too general to be sufficient for the purposes of communication. It is often necessary to be much more particular in ascertaining both the time and the manner, but particularly the place of the action, and the important office of adverbs is to accomplish these ends. Tenses, notwithstanding the great ingenuity displayed in their formation, scarcely descend farther than to denote performance in past, present, or future time. But, it is often requisite to be much more minute, and to signify whether the action was done yesterday, lately, long ago: or is to be done now, immediately, instantly; or will be done quickly, presently, hereafter; or will be repeated often, seldom, daily, &c. The circumstances, also, communicated by modes, are all of a very general nature. The very varied and numerous situations of society, required the signification of many circumstances of action much more particular; and a large class of adverbs was devised to express them. These adverbs denote quality and manner, either simply, as *wisely*, *prudently*, *cautiously*; or positively, as *truly*, *certainly*, *unquestionably*; or contingently, as *perhaps*, *probably*, *possibly*; or negatively, as *no*, *not*, *erroneously*; or conjointly, as *together*, *generally*, *universally*; or separately, as *apart*, *solely*, *solitarily*. Sometimes they denote magnitude, as *wholly*, *altogether*, *exceedingly*; or passion, as *angrily*, *lovingly*, *furiously*, *valiantly*; or merit, as *learnedly*, *prudently*, *industriously*. Another copious class of adverbs is appropriated to impart the circumstances of an action relative to place. The chief views they exhibit are, whether the action is performed in a place, or in moving to it, through it, or from it. Of the first sort are *here*, *there*, *where*, *within*, *without*; of the second, *hither*, *thither*, and the compounds of the syllable *ward*, as *toward*, *forward*, *backward*, *upward*, *downward*; of the third, *nowhere*, *elsewhere*, *everywhere*; of the fourth sort, *hence*, *whence*, *thence*. Of the adverbs signifying time and manner, two often, one from each class, attend on the same verb, by an analogy similar to the appearance of every verb, both in a tense and a mode, on the same occasion. The adverb significant of time generally precedes, while the adverb significant of manner follows the verb. "Caesar often fought bravely." "Brutus frequently reprehended Cassius severely for his avarice; while Cassius sometimes blamed Brutus justly for unseasonable lenity." In both these examples, the preceding adverb circumscribes the time expressed by the tense, and the succeeding adverb circumscribes the manner expressed by the mode. Adverbs are susceptible of comparison, sometimes regular, as *soon*, *sooner*,

soonest; but oftener irregular, as *readily*, *more readily*, *most readily*. One adverb is frequently employed to qualify another; *too confidently*, *very seldom*. Adverbs, finally, are often applied to circumscribe adjectives, *unmercifully severe*, *highly criminal*, *superlatively excellent*.

Prepositions are words prefixed to others, to denote various relations. "He came from Rome to Paris, in the company of many eminent men, and passed with them through many cities." They are almost all monosyllables in English, and are chiefly employed to supply the deficiency of the inflexions commonly called *cases*. On many occasions they lend their aid to furnish out compound-ed verbs; *outwit*, *foretell*, *over-rate*, *undervalue*: in all cases, they act as proportional ingredients of the composition, and add to it the full import of their powers.

The use of conjunctions is to connect single nouns, clauses of sentences, or members of periods. "You, and I, and he, lived together in great friendship." "Augustus, Antony, and Lepidus." "Men endowed with wisdom, and improved by experience, are the best guides in business." "Augustus, though the youngest, was the best politician of the three, and he retained by prudence, what he had gained by usurpation." Grammarians divide conjunctions into various classes—copulative, disjunctive, and adversative. The most useful distinction of them relates to those which correspond to one another in different clauses, or members of a period; and in the right management of which, both the perspicuity and propriety of language appear to be not a little concerned. *Although*, at the head of one clause or member, requires its correspondent *yet*, to introduce the other; *whether*, demands *or*; *either*, *or*; *neither*, *nor*; *such*, *that*; *as*, *so*. "Though he were rich, yet for our sake he became poor." "Whether we expect confidence, or demand obedience; we must either trust to merit, or have recourse to authority." "Neither the dignity of the judge, nor the fear of punishment, could restrain guilt." "Such is the confidence of folly, that it will not listen to the dictates of wisdom." "As the tree falleth, so let it lie."

Interjections are the least numerous of all the classes of words into which language is divided. They are intended to denote those impressions which affect so suddenly and violently the mind of the speaker or writer, that they are thrown in (*inter* and *jactus*) amid the regular train of his thoughts, because they demand immediate utterance. This description of their nature demonstrates that the proper use of them must be very limited; for the incidents which excite such vehement agitation are not very common. Even in the warm and animated languages of antiquity, interjections rarely occur. In the more tame and phlegmatic tongues of modern times they appear still seldomer with grace. In the latter, accordingly, there are few interjections, except those which interrupt, not language, but silence; which occur at the seasons of high passion, when the sentiments of the speaker are too violent for communication by words, and with difficulty admit utterance, at intervals, by sighs or by groans.

From this brief sketch of the structure of language, it will be seen that an investigation of the principles of grammar, though perhaps abstract and refined, is yet intimately connected with successful composition. To fill up the outline, is presupposed an acquaintance with its four constituent materials, viz. orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody. The knowledge of these forms the ground-work of all good speaking and writing; and to their rules we must recur for government in judging of the performances of ourselves or others. Language is a most important engine of the mind, and shall we not apply ourselves to learn its nature, its machinery, and its powers?

The study of this art has been too much neglected; which undoubtedly is the chief cause of the solecism and impropriety often to be found in polite conversation itself, and of the inaccurate and slovenly sentiment and expression which frequently disfigure the works of great authors. It is impossible to write any language with propriety and elegance, without studying it grammatically. Polished intercourse, and reading of the most approved models, may improve and refine both taste and style; but they are inadequate to form a correct and pure composer. To write well in any language, it seems to be absolutely necessary, in the first place, to be well acquainted with its principles and its structure; in the second, to study with care the works of those who write it with most propriety; in the third, to acquire, by practice, the habit of composition. The first of these three expedients is the foundation of the other two. Without a competent knowledge of the structure of language, we can neither perceive nor relish the refined merits of the compositions of others, nor realize these merits in compositions of our own. Indeed, no one of these expedients will succeed without the aid of the rest: combined, however, they contribute to form whatever is elegant, chaste, and unexceptionable in mental effort.

Whilst the scholar will recognize the necessity of an attentive study of the grammars of the ancient tongues, he will see the propriety of a thorough knowledge of his own, abounding, as we have seen it does, with peculiarities and variations requiring a separate and distinct investigation; and doubly important is this knowledge to those so situated as not to know the analogies of classical instruction. A mind unacquainted with the principles of English grammar, has much to fear from inaccuracy. Such ignorance would be unpardonable in a school-boy, and betrays an insensibility to the merits of our native tongue, which, it may be truly said, is the vehicle of more sound wisdom, more genuine philosophy, and more pure religion, than any other.

ART. II.—*Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia*.—Vol. 1. part 1.—Printed for the Society, and sold by Thomas Dobson and Caleb Richardson of Philadelphia, 1817. 8vo. 218 pages.

IN the infancy of society, as in the infancy of the species, Fancy is more alive than Reason; and those effusions of intellect that

are addressed to the passions, form the earliest branch of literature, and are best calculated for people susceptible of feeling, but unused to patient and laborious investigation. The war songs of the bards, are the first compositions that history gives us an account of, among rude and savage nations. Whether they be the savages of ancient Greece, whose exploits are the subject of Homer's ballads, or the Runic poetry of the northern nations, the war songs of their bards and scalds, or the half genuine forgeries of Macpherson under the name of Ossian, or the Celtic songs of the early days of Erin and Caledonia. Poetry and description, uniformly constitutes the literary amusement of rude and ignorant people in the first stages of society; and poetry and description of more polished fabrication, still continues, and will long continue to form the literary amusement of the multitude in every stage of society; of those, who are every where too listless and too ignorant to appreciate the severer studies by which real knowledge is patiently accumulated and disciplined, and the actual condition of human life substantially improved. The laborious investigations of ethics and jurisprudence (not however as exemplified in the chicanery of legal practice, but) in the great principles of legislation that embrace the groundwork of politics, of political economy, and of municipal regulation, few can patiently peruse; and the rhyme-loving populace know little, and care less, about the men who are thus labouring to ameliorate the condition of their species. The time-consuming, wealth-consuming, health-consuming pursuits of the experimental philosopher, conduce but little to his general reputation, and with the mass of society, (whose intercourse no man is able to renounce) serve often but to expose him to pity or derision; while the effeminate prettinesses of Moore, or the misanthropic immoralities of Byron, lead equally to reputation and to fortune.

It is not pretended, that poetry, such as we find it among poets of established reputation, is not an allowable amusement, and an elegant relaxation. But as it was in the beginning of society, it now is, and ever will be, that a general prevailing fondness for the science of words, and not of things—for poetry and oratory—for splendid, diffuse, and ornamented diction, whether in verse or in prose, in writing or in speaking, is the sure sign of a comparatively ignorant and uninformed state of society. These constitute the trincallerie, the gaudy, youthful and useless ornaments of literary apparel: ornaments, that as people become wiser, and grow older, are thrown aside as fit only for the giddy, unreflecting, and trifling taste of early years.

If these remarks be just, the propensity that so long prevailed in this country among all classes of people, for novels and poetry as books of study—and orations and declamations as means of instruction, and vehicles of information—amounted to irrefragable proofs of literary inferiority. It was a national taste that conferred no national credit; and operated most injuriously even in our national concerns. It tended to place all merit in rounded periods and elegant declamation, as constituting the highest and most desirable

qualification in authors who dictate to the press, and in orators who address from the forum. Our miscellanies abounded in laboured efforts at wit—our biographies furnished specimens of a gaudy, meretricious style, utterly incompatible with that chaste and perspicuous simplicity, in which true taste consists. Every new public event produced a crop of orators whose aim was to shine—to present to their audience, ornamented declamation, or poetic prose, wherein solid information and profound reflection were the last requisites sought for: eulogies, which like most of the French *eloges* were *vox et præterea nihil*, forgotten as soon as heard. In conformity with this taste, the first quality of a legislator was to talk long and fluently; and nothing was more common than to elevate a favourite orator of the populace to the station of a legislator, for his dexterous and declamatory flattery of the prejudices of his hearers. It was this false taste produced in the boyish years of our national literature, that tempted our legislators to amplify in their speeches, when it was their duty to condense; and debate for days together, questions so frivolous, that men of plain understanding would have discussed and dismissed them, in as many minutes as they occupied hours; while the warfare of words in our counsels, became almost as expensive as the warfare of arms in the field of battle. All this was the effect of a juvenile state of society, wherein works of fiction, and the deliriums of fancy, are cherished, until talents chastened by experience, exert themselves in the sober, narrow paths of solid investigation. This taste is fast declining: its day is nearly gone by: tinsel and glitter fail to dazzle: and we are now beginning to take the stand that becomes our national character, and to pursue with slow but patient perseverance the paths that lead to real knowledge. The present publication, is among the proofs of this remark.

The state of things we complain of, long took place in Europe; and it is of late years only, that in England, France, and Germany, the pursuits of science which, in their effects, so strongly tend to ameliorate the condition of the human race, have been gradually rising in public estimation, and now bid fair to claim their due pre-eminence in general society. In the best company of Europe, the writers of plays, poems, ballads, and vaudevilles—trifles, which for the most part, are better calculated to enervate and debauch, than to improve the mind—are no longer the great objects of admiration and conversation. Improvements in science and the arts—and new views of the operations of nature, are among the topics that are no longer considered as out of harmony with the polished society, even though females constitute, as they ought to do, the most engaging part of it. No woman of polite education in France or England, would consider it as an intrusion in conversation, to talk of Buffon, Lavoisier, or Cuvier, in the one country—or of Priestley, Hutton, or Davy, in the other: nor is there a society of well-bred people in the kingdom of Great Britain, where sir Joseph Banks, though not famed for science itself, but the great promoter and purveyor of science in that country, would not be

received with more respect and attention, than any man of mere belles-lettres reputation in it.

We hail the present volume, as the dawn of a brilliant day for science in this country: as an evidence, that our countrymen have strength of mind enough to embrace in our national literature the knowledge of things as well as of words; and that in the metropolis of America, as Philadelphia may fairly be considered, an attempt is made to ascertain, whether public encouragement cannot be afforded to the cultivation of natural science.

As the society from which the volume now under consideration emanates, is comparatively little known in our county as yet—and as our object is to make it more known, as it deserves to be—we shall present to our readers, the brief and modest preface that introduces the volume.

‘The members of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, desirous of acquiring knowledge themselves, and extending it among their fellow citizens, have for some years been accustomed to meet at leisure hours for the purpose of communicating to each other such facts and observations, as are calculated to promote the views of the society. By degrees, a collection of subjects in natural history was made, and has increased until a museum has been formed, which is already very valuable, and which is daily increasing.

‘In further pursuance of the objects of their institution, the Society have now determined to communicate to the public, such facts and observations as, having appeared interesting to them, are likely to be interesting to other friends of natural science. They do not profess to make any periodical communication; but well knowing how desirable it is, that persons engaged in similar pursuits, should be made acquainted as early as possible with what has been done by their fellow-labourers in the fields of science elsewhere, they mean to publish a few pages whenever it appears to them that materials worthy of publication have been put in their possession. In so doing, they propose to exclude entirely all papers of mere theory,—to confine their communications as much as possible to facts—and by abridging papers too long for publication in their original state, to present the facts thus published, clothed in as few words as are consistent with perspicuous description.

‘Well aware that much leisure and superfluous wealth are not always found in company with an ardent love of science, they mean their proposed publication to be as cheap and as unostentatious as the nature of the subjects will admit; so that it need not encroach unnecessarily on the funds of the society, or of those who may wish to purchase it. In short, they are desirous of contributing their share to the mass of knowledge, as early in all cases, and with as little show, and as small expense as possible. The present publication will be a specimen of what they propose in future.

‘They invite the lovers of science generally, and particularly all those who are anxious for its encouragement in the United States, to aid in promoting the objects of this institution, and to encourage the present publication, so long as the contents of it shall prove deserving of public approbation.’

It appears to us, that this unassuming preface, presents a model for works of this description in *this* country. The volume is left to

rest on its own merits. There is nothing to captivate or impose, by means of a dignified quarto, where a rivulet of text, glides through a meadow of margin—here are no splendid engravings, no coloured landscapes—it is an unpretending volume; wherein we may venture to say, that there are more new facts related in fewer words, than can be shown in any other production of the American press. The plates are chiefly etchings and aquatints, wherein the objects are delineated with the most scrupulous accuracy, chiefly under the inspection of one of the best naturalists, and finest delineators of natural history that Europe has ever produced, M. Le Sueur; the scientific associate of Perron in the French expedition of discovery to Australasia and the southern ocean. The plates are in number nine, comprizing upwards of ninety distinct objects. The volume itself contains more new information in natural history, than any volume of its size collected and published in Europe within the same period; and it is with sincere pleasure we record the great attention it has received from men of science in France, England, and Germany: in all which countries, it is now considered as a compliment of value to be a member of this institution; so quickly and so deservedly has its reputation risen abroad! A disgrace indeed it will be to the American public, if they should verify the mournful observation of the Scripture, that “a prophet has honour, save in his own country, and amongst his own household.”

That this society may be better known, and its value appreciated, we shall give the table of contents, and a paper of Mr Say's on the technical character and description of the *Hessian Fly* as a specimen of the work, which we earnestly recommend to public notice, and support, because we sincerely believe it calculated to do honour to the American nation.

‘ Introduction.

‘ Description of six new species of the genus *FIROLA*, observed by Messrs. Le Sueur and Péron in the Mediterranean sea, in the months of March and April, 1809. By C. A. Le Sueur.

‘ Account of a North American Quadruped, supposed to belong to the genus *Ovis*. By G. Ord.

‘ Description of seven species of American Fresh-water and Land Shells, not noticed in the systems. By Thomas Say.

‘ The same, concluded.

‘ Descriptions of several new species of North American insects. By Thomas Say.

‘ Observations on the genus *ERIOGONUM*, and the Natural Order *POLYONEÆ* of Jussieu. By Thomas Nuttall.

‘ Notice of the late Dr. Waterhouse.

‘ Observations on the genus *ERIOGONUM*, &c. concluded.

‘ Characters of a new Genus, and descriptions of three new Species upon which it is formed; discovered in the Atlantic ocean. in the months of March and April, 1816; lat. 22° 9'. By C. A. Le Sueur.

‘ Description of three new species of the genus *RAJA*. By C. A. Le Sueur.

‘ Some account of the Insect known by the name of *Hessian Fly*, and of a parasitic Insect that feeds on it. By Thomas Say.

‘On a new genus of the CRUSTACEA, and the species in which it is established By Thomas Say.

‘An account of an American species of the genus TANTALUS or IBIS. by George Ord.

‘An account of the CRUSTACEA of the United States. By Thomas Say.

‘An account of the CRUSTACEA of the United States, continued,

‘A short description of five (supposed) new species of the genus MURÆNA, discovered by Mr. Le Sueur, in the year 1816. By C. A. Le Sueur.

‘Description of two new species of the genus GADUS. By the same.

‘Description of a new species of the genus CYPRINUS. By the same.

‘An account of an American species of TORTOISE, not noticed in the systems. By the same.

‘A new genus of Fishes, of the order Abdominales, proposed under the name CATOSTOMUS, and the characters of this genus, with those of its species, indicated. By the same.

‘An account of the CRUSTACEA of the United States, continued.

‘CATOSTOMUS, a new genus of Fishes, concluded.

‘An account of two new genera of Plants; and of a species of TILLÆA, and another of LIMOSELLA, recently discovered on the banks of the Delaware, in the vicinity of Philadelphia. By Thomas Nuttall.

‘Descriptions of new species of Land and Fresh-water Shells of the United States. By Thomas Say.

‘Descriptions of four new species, and two varieties, of the genus HYDRARGIRA By C. A. Le Sueur.

‘Observations on the GEOLOGY of the West India Islands, from Barbadoes to Santa Cruz, inclusive. By Wm. Maclure.

‘Observations on several species of the genus ACTINIA; illustrated by figures. By C. A. Le Sueur.

‘An account of the CRUSTACEA of the United States, continued.

‘Observations on several species of the genus ACTINIA, continued.

‘Description of COLLINSIA, a new genus of Plants. By T. Nuttall.

‘Act of Incorporation.

‘Constitution.

‘Catalogue of the Library.

‘List of Donors to the Library.

‘List of Donations to the Museum.

‘List of Donations to the Apparatus.’

‘Some account of the Insect known by the name of Hessian Fly, and of a parasitic Insect that feeds on it. By Thomas Say.—Read June 24th, 1817.—Order DIPTERA.—Genus CECIDOMYIA.—Genus Tipula, of Linne and Degeer. Chironomus, of Fabr. Trichocera, of Lamarck CECIDOMYIA, of Latr. and Meigen—Antennæ filiform joints subequal, globular, hairy. Proboscis salient. Wings incumbent, horizontal.—Description.—C. Destructor. Head and thorax black; wings black, fulvous at base; feet pale, covered with black hair.

‘Inhabits the northern and middle states.

‘Body clothed with short black hairs; head black; antennæ shorter than the body, somewhat smaller toward the tip, verticillate, joints moniliform, separated by a hyaline filament. Thorax gibbous, black, glabrous and polished. Scutel, prominent, colour of the thorax, rounded behind. Wings ciliate, rounded at tip, blackish, the fulvous colour of the base is sometimes extended upon the nerves of the wing, paler and

gradually disappearing before the middle; longer than the abdomen. *Feet* long, slender, thighs fulvous at base, furnished at the tip with several very acute claws. *Poisers* pale, nearly as long as the thorax, with a suboval capitulum. *Breast* sometimes fulvous. *Abdomen* brownish.

‘Female. *Antennæ* longer than the thorax, the joints somewhat oval, not separated by filaments. *Abdomen* elongate-oval, above rectilinear, beneath somewhat ventricose, fulvous, with a dorsal and ventral black vitta widely interrupted by the sutures. *Tail* more or less acute in the dead specimen in proportion as the oviduct is exerted. Length rather more than three-twentieths of an inch.

‘*Eggs* elongated, linear, pale, fulvous.

‘Larva. *Body* somewhat fusiform. whitish; *tail* acute, rather abruptly attenuated; *head* incurved, and attached by the mouth; above hyaline, exhibiting an internal, abbreviated, visceral, green line; beneath with opaque white clouds, which in the young animal are perfectly separate and about nine on each side, with an intermediate series of smaller ones: as the larva advances to its full stature, these unite so as to exhibit the appearance of regular transverse segments; near the anterior extremity are the rudiments of feet resembling obsolete tubercles, or crenulæ; when taken from the culm it is almost inert, exhibiting very little motion to the eye. Length three-twentieths of an inch, breadth one twentieth.

‘Pupa—resembles the mature larva, but is of a dark reddish brown colour; and appears perfectly inert.

‘This well known destroyer of the wheat has received the name of “Hessian fly,” in consequence of an erroneous supposition, that it was imported in some straw with the Hessian troops during the revolutionary war. But the truth is, it is absolutely unknown in Europe, and is a species entirely new to the systems—being now for the first time described. The insect described by Mr. Kirby in the *Trans. Lin. Soc. of Lond.* vol. iv. p. 232, and named by him *Tripula Tritici*, is without doubt of the same genus with this, but specifically distinct.

‘The history of the changes of this insect, is probably briefly this—The eggs are deposited by the female in different numbers from one to eight, and perhaps more, upon a single plant of wheat, and in so doing the parent exhibits another instance of that provident care for the welfare of her offspring, which is so strongly evinced by many of the insect race. The egg is not placed at the axilla of either of the leaves indifferently, but displaying some portion of botanical knowledge, the fly carefully insinuates her elongated oviduct between the vagina of the inner leaf and the culm nearest to the root of the plant, where the larva when excluded from the egg will be in immediate contact with the culm, from which alone its nourishment is derived. In this situation with the body inverted, the head being invariably towards the roots, or if above, towards the first joint, the infant larva passes the winter. The pressure and puncture of the insect in this state of its being, upon the culm, produces a longitudinal groove of sometimes sufficient depth to receive almost one half of the side of its body. When several of them are contiguous on the same plant, the pressure on the body of the larva is unequal, and an inequality in the form of the body is the consequence, as well as the destruction of the plant which is neglected to their attack. The perfect fly appears early in June, lives but a short time, deposits its eggs and dies; the insects from these eggs complete the history by preparing for the winter brood.

'Order HYMENOPTERA.—Genus CERAPHRON. Latr.—Antennæ inflected, moniliform, ten or twelve jointed, basal joint long, cylindrical. Abdomen subovate. Inferior wings without apparent nerves. Superior wings with a costal nerve, and a single branch, forming an incomplete radial cellule.

'Species.—*C. Destructor*. Black, granulated; abdomen glabrous, polished; feet, and base of the antennæ, whitish.

'In the Larva of *Cecidomyia destructor*.

'Head black, opaque, sometimes brassy, granulated over its entire surface; eyes not prominent, rounded in compliance with the curve of the head, and with the stemmata, red-brown, antennæ pale brown, furnished with short cinereous hairs, the two basal joints pale yellowish; the terminal ones in the male, a little dilated and approximated so as to form an obvious ovate, acute mass. Thorax with the granulæ equal to those of the head; black, usually brassy before the line of the base of the wings; nerve of the wings pale brownish; feet whitish with black apophysis. Abdomen ovate-acute, perfectly black, highly polished and furnished with a few short hairs; the segments of the base are sometimes pale yellowish or testaceous.

'Length one-tenth of an inch.

'This is often mistaken for the Hessian fly, in consequence of being found in wheat fields in vast numbers during the devastation committed there by that insect, and many have been deceived by the specious circumstance of its evolution from the pupa itself of the destroying larva, under their own observation. But the truth is the Ceraphron belongs to that vast tribe of insects included by Linne under the Genus Ichneumon. True to the manners of its kind the parent deposits her eggs within the bodies of the larvæ of the *Cecidomyia destructor*, through a puncture made by her acute oviduct for the purpose; the young when disclosed from the egg, feeding securely within the body of the larva, at length kills it, but not in general until after its change into the pupa state. Protected by this indurated covering, the parasite undergoes its change, and appears in the perfect state, about the latter part of June. It seems probable that the insect prevents the total loss of our wheat crops, by restraining the increase of the *Cecidomyia*, within certain bounds. The *Ichneumon Tipulæ* of Mr. Kirby is congeneric with this, but is doubtless specifically distinct.'

ART. III.—*Journal of the Proceedings of the late Embassy to China, comprising a correct narrative of the Embassy, of the Voyage to and from China, and of the Journey from the mouth of the Pei-ho to the return to Canton. Interspersed with Observations upon the face of the country, the polity, moral character, and manners, of the Chinese nation. By Henry Ellis, third commissioner of the embassy. Philadelphia, 1818.*

OUR readers, no doubt, recollect, that in consequence of the seizure of American vessels, by British cruisers, during the late war, within the Chinese dominions, a serious misunderstanding took place between the Viceroy of Canton, and the English residing at that place. So highly, indeed, were the Chinese authorities offended, that the Chinese linguist, at Canton, was bamboozed, the Chinese of every denomination forbidden to serve in the English factory, and a nonintercourse between the factory and

the natives was, in fact, produced. Matters appeared to be approaching to a serious crisis, when, in consequence of the application of the board of directors to the ministry, lord Amherst was appointed, in July 1815, to be ambassador extraordinary to the court of Peking, and Mr. Ellis, the author of the work before us, was named as secretary to the embassy. The object of the mission, as we collect from the work, appears to have been, to adjust existing differences, and to obtain greater security for the British trade in future.

Mr. Ellis's object appears to have been to write a book, knowing that, as Science and Literature are ever on the look out for accession, and that difficulties increase the ardent curiosity of their followers, the reading part of the community might possibly buy it. Researches have been heretofore pushed into almost every corner of the world, and each succeeding account has rather heightened, than allayed public curiosity. Towards China, from various causes, the attention of those calling themselves civilized nations, has been for a series of years directed, and endeavours have been made to satisfy the craving demand for information on the subject of that nation. In particular, several persons connected with the embassy of lord Macartney, in 1793, gave on their return to England, the result of their observations on the Chinese to the public; we allude to the works of sir George Staunton and Mr. Barrow, productions which excited considerable interest at the moment, and left curiosity so far unsatisfied, as to secure to future accounts the most decided interest. Feeling ourselves considerable excitement on the subject, we welcomed Mr. Ellis's work as an addition to the scanty information within our reach, and anticipated a feast, for which, as literary *gourmands*, we had every inclination. Unfortunately we gave too much credit to the title-page, for our own satisfaction; and, if we at first, on comparing the size of the work with the pompous enumeration of the subjects on which the author professes to have made observations, felt inclined to charge him with presumption, our opinion certainly has not been changed by a very attentive perusal of his journal. And we feel inclined to protest almost as strongly as we would against a fraud, with regard to the unfairness, in a literary point of view, of holding out the idea of having made observations on the "polity, moral character, and manners" of a nation, when the author must have been conscious that he possessed neither the means nor the opportunity of so doing. This unfairness can only be fully estimated by those, who like ourselves, have waded through a dull, and scrupulously exact detail of occurrences, likely to take place every day in the year, on the imperial canal, with the hope of meeting with some new idea, or some new view at the next page, which never appeared to console us for our trouble. Let us, however, do the author the justice to say, that he apprized us of what was likely to take place, and that we have only ourselves to reproach, for having been willing to attribute his humble opinion of himself to *native modesty*.

‘To those who, like myself, have passed years of their lives in absence from their native country, and have visited some of the principal courts of Asia, the mere difference of manners, customs, and court pageantry, from the European world, will be less striking; and perhaps the same comparative indifference will extend itself to the political conduct and moral habits of the nations. I shall be less surprised with the exhibitions of squalid poverty among the great body of the people, and with the arrogance and at the same time meanness of the higher orders. Nor will it excite my indignation or astonishment to find that the civilization of the west is in the east either disbelieved or despised; or to observe a nation, satisfied with the hereditary mediocrity of ages, resisting the introduction of foreign, but superior knowledge.

‘Had I the capacity, I much doubt the possibility of collecting any new information respecting China or its inhabitants. The more modern works of our countrymen Sir George Staunton and Mr. Barrow, of De Guignes and Vanbraam, have satisfied curiosity up to the date of the respective embassies to which they belonged, and as centuries have produced less changes in China than a generation in Europe variety is not now to be expected; in fact, at an earlier period the labours of the missionaries had almost exhausted in detail every possible subject of popular inquiry: the satisfaction however remains of seeing that of which we have read or heard; but such satisfaction will be proportionate to the interest of the subject, and on this I must confess that China has always appeared to me eminently deficient.

‘China, vast in its extent, produce, and population, wants energy and variety; the chill of uniformity pervades and deadens the whole: for my own part I had rather again undergo fatigue and privations among the Bedouins of Arabia, or the Eeliat of Persia, than sail along, as we may expect, in unchanging comfort on the placid waters of the imperial canal.

‘But whether the view just taken be just or otherwise, ignorance of the language, and the state of surveillance under which we shall probably travel, will be complete bars to enjoyment and research; the highest satisfaction will consist in returning to England, and being able to say, with Mr. Barrow, “*Non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum.*”

Thus, it would appear, that the author was as well qualified to judge of the *Chinese nation*, as a Chinese who did not speak a word of English, and who openly professed to despise the country and inhabitants, would be to judge of the “polity, moral character, and manners” of the United States, from having been *polled* up the Susquehannah from Harrisburg to some inland village, and back again. Let us see how he judges after such an acknowledgment, as we have just quoted.

‘The Chinese are so illiberal in their principles of action, and so unblushingly false in their assertions, that the soundest arguments are thrown away upon them. Denying both your general principles and your facts *ad libitum*, the Chinese defies all attempt at refutation; yet, though aware that duplicity and deceit are with him habitual and invariable, he has no hesitation in assuming the language of offended integrity when concealment is used by others; and it must be confessed that the constant practice of these vices gives them a wonderful aptitude in detecting the slightest semblance of them in those with whom they are dealing. Our friend Chang affects a taste for literature, and we are told

writes verses; this is the case with most men of education and fashion in China, and impromptu composition is an usual occupation at their convivial meetings.'

And this opinion he hazards, notwithstanding his anticipations of a state of *surveillance* were fully answered. The characteristic jealousy of the Chinese government, prevented any thing like intercourse with the natives, which, if it could have taken place, must, with Mr. Ellis, have been (as we have already seen) confined entirely to signs.

We pass, however, to another subject; one upon which the author may be considered as possessing a competent knowledge; we mean the object of the embassy. This he has stated with clearness, and we think his observations on the propriety of the performance of the ko-tou, or ceremony of reception, are marked by great good sense. It is easy to perceive that the Chinese, in the course of the discussions on this most interesting subject, displayed an acuteness, and diplomatic subtlety, that would not have disgraced the most accomplished European negociator. Their superiority over his lordship is very evident, and not contented with succeeding in their views, they manifested a disposition to make his lordship feel the difference between a civilized people and barbarians, as they were pleased to term the English embassy. It is impossible not to consider the following account of an edict of the emperor, as more derogatory to the dignity of the embassy than the ko-tou with its nine prostrations.

'Sir George collected the substance of a late edict respecting us, to the following effect. It commenced by announcing the return of the embassy, and after describing us as persons in strange dresses, prohibited our stopping, or going on shore. All persons were also forbidden to molest us by gazing at us, to sell us books or articles of furniture, and were generally ordered to follow their usual occupations: a particular injunction was addressed to the women, commanding them to keep out of our sight. An observation of General Wang's throws light upon the frequent repetition of this injunction. A party of Tartars belonging to some barbarous tribes, passing through the country on a similar occasion to the present, violated the women of the villages on the route; and as all foreigners are alike despised by the Chinese, we, until known, were suspected of equal brutality. It must be confessed, that the freedom allowed to us is quite irreconcilable with this edict.'

Mr. Ellis has his revenge when *he* describes the Chinese; and before we terminate our notice of this work, it will be proper to state, that there is *one* general idea, impressed on our minds by this gentleman, with more than ordinary pains. It is, if we comprehend the author rightly, the only general trait of *manners*, (for it is certainly under that head that we are to place it,) that we have derived from the perusal of this uninteresting work: the Chinese, to believe Mr. Ellis, are a "noisy, nasty" people. We should rather say, "a stinking people." The sufferings sustained by Mr. Ellis, from the want of cleanliness on the part of the natives, must have been extreme. Indeed, our author, on one occasion, doubts whether stench ought not to be considered as one of the sources of

the *sublime*; agreeing with those of the Scottish school of philosophers, who think the perception of *great power*, one of the most fruitful sources of this emotion. We hasten to quit the task of condemnation, regretting that the work should have been deemed fit for publication in this country, while so many productions of the British press, are suffered to pass unnoticed by our booksellers, and for this obvious reason, are almost unknown and unnoticed by the American public. We can see no good reason why we should have "all the tediousness of English literature bestowed upon us," which some of these gentlemen determine shall be the case, "though it were twice as much." We recommend to their attention the following remarks from the pen of one of the most accomplished scholars among us, and sincerely hope it may have due weight in future. "It is this kind of empiricism on the one hand, and presumption on the other, which arrests our solid advancement, and degrades us from our true level in the eyes of Europe. I would prefer that our taste and intelligence should be tested by the English works reprinted among us, although these, too commonly, have been *trumpery* and *insignificant*. Our booksellers seem to have been governed by the panegyrics of English reviews, and the success of a book, as evidenced by the number of editions; without making allowance for the influence of venality or party spirit in those panegyrics, and the circumstances that in so vast a reading public as the British, no kind of trash can fail to have a number of eager consumers. Hence we have been inundated with what could have no other than the worst of effects on American taste, and must either produce, or pamper an intellectual chlorosis."*

[The following article came to hand after the review of Mr. Ellis's *Journal* was in type. It contains a very fair account of a work that is interesting, as it completes the view of Lord Amherst's embassy to China. Mr. M'Leod's narrative, we observe, has been announced, as about to be republished in this city, and it was our intention, on its appearance, to have written some account of it; but our perusal of the English copy enables us to say, that we have found the following notice so entirely just, that we have been induced to alter our plan. Our readers will observe that Mr. M'Leod's narrative, being principally confined to events that occurred in the absence of Mr. Ellis, there is no tiresome repetition of incident.—*Edit. An. Mag.*]

ART. IV. *Narrative of a Voyage in His Majesty's late ship Alceste, to the Yellow Sea, along the coast of Corea, and through its numerous hitherto undiscovered Islands, to the Island of Lew-chew; with an Account of her Shipwreck in the Straits of Gaspar.* By John M'Leod, Surgeon of the *Alceste*, 8vo. Plates. 1817.

[From the *Eclectic Review*.]

WE had intended to blend this article with one which will in our next number, we expect, be devoted to the larger work of Mr. Ellis; but on looking through Mr. M'Leod's volume, for the purpose of obtaining a general notion of its contents, we have found in it so much of interest and novelty, that we cannot feel

* Walsh's American Register. Vol. I. Introduction.

satisfied without giving it a separate analysis, and putting it fairly and singly forward on the ground of its own merits. Mr M'Leod is a man of sense and observation; he has made active use of his eyes and intellect; and, if his style is never very highly wrought, and even, sometimes, a little defective in point of correctness, there is yet a plain, manly, seaman-like distinctness and strength in his language, a clearness in his descriptions, and a vein of genuine English humour in his way of telling a story, that altogether afford ample compensation for the neglect of refinement. At the same time, we would suggest to Mr. M. the expediency of abstaining for the future from all light and jesting mention of any thing in the slightest degree connected with religion; to do this is neither wise nor manly; it will not, assuredly, commend the writer to the good opinion of those whose approbation is the most to be desired. There is not, indeed, much of this in his narrative; still, there is something, and whatever is in the smallest portion tinged with this offensive levity, should be carefully expunged.

We shall not, in this place, enumerate the names of the individuals attached to the late Chinese embassy, nor advert to any of the arrangements connected with it; and we shall consider the voyage of the *Alceste* with as little reference as possible to the circumstances of the mission. The adventures of the political voyagers were, in truth, rather dull and insipid; their business lay in a tedious and unvaried country, and with a very unentertaining people, and their discussions chiefly turned upon points of wearisome ceremony; but to the commander of the *Alceste* we are indebted for considerable discoveries, and to the surgeon of that frigate, for a very lively and instructive narrative of interesting and important events. The squadron, of which Captain Murray Maxwell was the commander, comprised the *Alceste* frigate, of forty-six guns, his majesty's brig *Lyra*, captain Basil Hall, and the General Hewitt Indiaman, Captain Campbell.

On the 9th of February, 1816, the ships sailed from Spithead; on the 18th reached Madeira, and on the 4th of March crossed the line, the usual ceremonies being observed by the crew. On the 16th, the squadron separated; the two smaller vessels 'were directed to make the best of their way to the Cape of Good Hope,' while the frigate stood over to the American coast, and on the 21st reached Rio Janeiro. The death of the queen of Portugal, which took place the day before their arrival, had put a stop to all public amusements, the reigning prince was closely shut up, and 'swarms of priests occupied every avenue to the palace, and hung in clusters on the staircases. St. Sebastians seems to be a soil, in which these members of the *Autos da Fé* still thrive well.' The funeral took place by torch-light, and the principal mourners, eight noblemen on horseback, with their huge broad-brimmed hats, long black robes, and glittering stars, presented to the lively spirits of our countrymen 'the whimsical combination of a coal-heaver, a priest, and a knight.' 'They do Bonaparte here the honour of being very much afraid of him; and keep a bright eye to windward,

lest he should break adrift from St. Helena, and come down upon them before the wind.'

They quitted Rio Janeiro on the 31st of March; in less than three weeks, they reached the Cape; and on the 8th of June, anchored in Anjeri Road, Java. Here they overtook the other ships, and such was the superior rate of sailing of the *Alceste*, that it enabled her to touch at Rio Janeiro, 'without in any way delaying the general passage; as notwithstanding this, she nearly overtook her consorts at the Cape. The same was the case here, though she remained ten days behind, being able to afford them, in such a run, a start of 1000 or 1500 miles.'

On the 28th of July, the ship anchored off the mouth of the Pei-Ho; but as the Chinese were not quite prepared for them, it was some days before a regular communication was established. The first appearance of the two delegated mandarins, did not strike our author with much reverential feeling. He compares them, with their 'short jacket or gown,' and 'crape petticoats,' to 'bulky old women,' and this irreverent disposition does not appear to have diminished on further acquaintance. Off Macao, the squadron had been joined by the *Discovery* and the *Investigator*, two 'surveying ships' in the service of the East-India Company, and it was now arranged, that a separation should take place, for the purpose of exploring the gulf of Pe-tche-lee. Whether it was politic or not, thus to run the hazard of alarming the jealous fears of the Chinese, we shall not now inquire; but the result of this cruize has certainly been very gratifying, inasmuch as it has rectified several prevailing errors respecting the geography and hydrography of this part of the world, and added materially to our knowledge of the coast and islands of this extensive gulf. The *Alceste* and *Discovery* stood to the North-eastward, and coasted along the hitherto unexplored shore of the gulf of Lea-tong. From incidental observations in this volume, and from the map in Mr. Ellis's *Journal*, we collect that the head of this gulf was not examined. On the 24th of August 'about noon' they were gratified with the sight of the great wall. They were then in lat. 39, 29, north, long. 120, 6, east, and this stupendous object winding over the loftiest hills, in extended and majestic sweep, bore N. W. by W. its 'nearest and lowest point being then distant about six or seven leagues. They now stood across toward the coast of Chinese Tartary, and landed. The inhabitants were extremely inquisitive, but not uncivil. They testified an inordinate partiality for anchor-buttons, and very little appetite for Spanish dollars. The Chinese language, dress, manners, and religion were prevalent here. The people displayed remarkable neatness in their houses and gardens, and 'there was an air of comfort about their villages, not always to be found in the more civilized parts of Europe.' They afterwards discovered a cluster of islands, and determined the shape and direction of the narrow promontory which forms the eastern boundary of the gulf of Lea-tong. In the mean time, Captain Hall had 'surveyed the western

and southern shores of the gulf of Pe-tche-lee, which were found to be in general low.

‘On the 26th we weighed from Zeu-a-tau, and next morning arrived at Oie-aie-oie, a very extensive and secure harbour, the *Lyra* sounding the passage in. On our entrance a number of Mandarins (or, as the seamen termed them *mad marines*) came on board to pay their respects; and an old turret on the face of a hill fired three popguns by way of salute, turning out about a dozen and a half of soldiers, who looked a good deal like the stage-military in an old-fashioned play.’

A different arrangement was now made, the company's ships returned to Macao, while the frigate and brig stood over for the purpose of exploring the coast of Corea. The result of their investigation was the discovery that our maps of this part of the world are altogether erroneous; that the land hitherto taken for continent, is, in fact, broken into innumerable islands; and that the real line of coast lies upwards of a hundred miles, ‘*high and dry* up the country, according to the existing charts.’ It is, indeed, somewhat curious to compare former delineations, such, for instance, as that in Arrowsmith's *Asia*, with that in Mr. Ellis's map, though of indifferent execution, and to observe of what mere guesses and approximations science is sometimes made up. The first cluster of these islands was named Sir James Hall's Group. ‘The natives here exhibited, by signs and gestures, the greatest aversion to the landing of a party from the ships, making cut-throat motions by drawing their hands across their necks, and pushing the boats away from the beach; but they offered no serious violence.’

By the representation of their dress, habits of life, and dwellings, given in an annexed plate, it would seem that these islanders enjoy the comforts and some of the luxuries of life; and from subsequent portions of the work, it would appear not improbable that these violent and repulsive gestures were only designed to intimate their own danger if detected in holding communication with foreign visitants. On the 4th of September, the vessels cast anchor in ‘a fine bay formed by the main land to the northward and eastward,’ in front of a village, with a larger town at some distance. Here they were visited by a chief with a numerous retinue, one of whom, to the great amusement of our countrymen, received a smart *bamboozing*, ‘and as the culprit squalled, a number of his companions standing round him joined in the howl.’ These visitors behaved with great propriety, and carefully examined and noted down every particular relating to the ships; but when the boats were manned, and, with Captain Maxwell, rowed for the shore, the agitation of the old chief was excessive, and when they landed, he exhibited all the signs of extreme despondency and grief. ‘It was explained as well as it could be done that no injury was intended, and that we were friends. He pointed to the sun; and describing its revolving course four times, he drew his hand across his throat, and dropping his chin upon his breast, shut his eyes as if dead; intimating that in four days, he should

be in danger of losing his head if he permitted further intrusion. The party made an appeal to his hospitality, by making signs of hunger; but this failed of their object, for though it brought refreshments, in procured no invitation into their houses; they were therefore rejected,

‘and by way of a hint that this was not *our* mode of treating strangers, invited them to return to the frigate, where they should dine handsomely, and meet with every respect. The old man, who had observed attentively, and seemed perfectly to comprehend, the meaning of the signs, answered by going through the motions of eating and drinking with much appearance of liveliness and satisfaction, patting his stomach afterwards, to say all was very fine; then looking grave, he drew his hand across his neck, and shut his eyes; as if to say, “what signifies your good dinners when I must lose my head.”’

He afterwards, on board the *Alceste*, wrote some characters on a slip of paper, to which he required an answer; the paper was retained, and when shown at Canton to Mr. Bannerman, ‘turned out to be, “I don’t know who ye are; what business have ye here?” a very pertinent inquiry, and to which it would not have been easy to give a satisfactory reply. He appeared very grateful to Captain M. ‘for not insisting upon going into the town,’ and received a bible which he carried on shore, ‘with much care, most likely supposing it to be some official communication.’

When they left this place which was named Basil’s Bay, they stood to the southward, through innumerable and lofty islands, inhabited, and of small extent; the outer group was called the Amherst Isles, and the inner the Korean Archipelago. The inhabitants were on the whole friendly, but averse to intercourse with the voyagers, motioning to them to depart, and ‘making the usual signal with their hands across the throat.’ Corea, or Kaoli, is tributary to the emperor of China, and sends, in acknowledgment of fealty, a triennial embassy.

‘His Korean Majesty may well be styled “king of ten thousand isles,” but his *supposed* continental dominions have been very much circumscribed by our visit to his shores. Except in the late and present embassy, no ships had ever penetrated into the Yellow Sea; the Lion had kept the coast of China aboard only, and had neither touched at the Tartar nor Korean side. Cook, Prowse, Bougainville, Broughton and others, had well defined the bounds on the eastern coast of this country, but the western had hitherto been laid down on the charts from imagination only, the main land being from a hundred and thirty, to a hundred and fifty miles farther to the eastward, than these charts had led us to believe.’

The language of Corea is affirmed to have ‘no resemblance in sound to the colloquial language of China,’ though the ‘literati’ use the Chinese written character.

After disengaging themselves from this wilderness of isles, they passed a volcano, of which at the distance of two or three miles, the sulphurous smell was ‘very strong.’ In their approach to the islands of Lewchew, (the Lekeyos of the charts,) the ships were

in some danger, especially the smaller one, from that terror of seamen, a strong wind on a lee shore.

'The *Lyra*, indeed, could not have tacked in such a swell, and was almost too near to attempt wearing. Both ships, therefore, stood on with every sail they could carry, on the starboard tack, endeavouring to weather the reef. Much anxiety existed, at this moment, on board the *Alceste*, for the fate of the *Brig*; the breakers rearing their white tops close to leeward of her, and rolling, with terrific force, upon the rocks. By steady steerage, however, and a press of sail, she at last passed the danger, and bore up through a channel formed by the reef and some high islets to the southward, very much to the satisfaction of all concerned; and she was followed by the frigate.'

The morning view presented to the navigators the refreshing scenery of a highly cultivated shore, and the approach of boats from the land, offering them vegetables and fresh water, and pointing out the safest anchorage. The ships made sail in the direction pointed out, and came to in front of 'a considerable town, with a number of vessels at anchor under it; in a harbour, the mouth of which was formed by two pier heads.' The natives, to whom the sight was altogether new, crowded to the shore, and the ships were speedily visited by the 'people in office,' who made the usual inquiries. The general answer to this was correct, but we are sorry to say, that it was judged expedient to practise deception on these good people, by informing them that the ship had sprung a leak, and by turning the cock in the hold, filling the well, and setting the chain-pumps to work. The natives gazed with astonishment and sympathy at the volumes of water thrown out on the main deck, and without delay collected a strong party of their carpenters, and brought them on board to assist in repairing the damage. When this kind offer was evaded, with an intimation that fresh provisions and water would be most acceptable, an immediate and liberal supply was furnished of 'bullocks, pigs, goats, fowls, eggs, and other articles, with abundance of excellent sweet potatoes, vegetables, fruit then in season, and even candles and fire-wood.' For all these receipts were taken, but though payment was repeatedly tendered, none would be accepted. After a short period they were visited by a man of rank, who was handsomely entertained, and by whom they were hospitably feasted in return. A proposal to 'walk over' the city was, however, civilly put aside, and a degree of caution was, at first, very properly exercised towards the new comers, who attributed much, even of the slight restriction imposed upon them, to the interference of *Bonaparte*, a native, so termed by our countrymen from his 'dark and peculiar aspect,' and from his supposed inclination to keep them at greater distance. The lower orders conducted themselves with the greatest courtesy. When the officers left the public dinner, the natives drew up on both sides of the way, to gratify their curiosity, in the utmost regularity; the inner row formed of the smallest boys kneeling; the second of larger children 'squatting;' the next rank of men, and the tallest stood behind, or mounted on stones or hillocks. The most entire confidence was, at last, established, and

Captain Maxwell was permitted to land his stores for inspection, and to establish his rope-makers and artificers of various kinds, at convenient points of the shore. They provided all kinds of accommodation to the utmost extent of their power, and even felled wood for spars and towed them alongside. The island of Lewchew is about sixty miles long, and twenty broad, and is the principal of a group of thirty-six, subject to the same monarch. Its early history is, as usual, involved in obscurity and fable, and the few main points on which dependance can be placed, contain very little interest or variety. It is situated in the happiest climate in the globe; the scenery is delightful, the people healthy, active, and apt in receiving instruction. Madera Cosyong, one of the most assiduous in his attention to our countrymen, is described as a finished gentleman. He paid great attention to every word he heard spoken, wrote it in his memorandum book, and in a few weeks made such a proficiency in the English language, as to converse without an interpreter. The ready and accommodating politeness of this people was altogether extraordinary. When the health of the king of Lewchew was drunk in a bumper at Captain Maxwell's table, a Lewchewer immediately rose; and addressing the captain through the interpreter, very feelingly expressed his gratification at the compliment; and precisely as a European gentleman would have done under similar circumstances, proposed, in return, a bumper to the king of the *Engelees*. Though much of the volume yet lies before us, we cannot refuse space to an extract or two, in further illustration of the character and condition of this amiable people. After describing the scenery in the neighbourhood of the ships, Mr. M'Leod proceeds as follows:—

‘At a short distance from this eminence, the traveller is led by a foot-path to what seems only a little wood; on entering which, under an archway formed by the intermingling branches of the opposite trees, he passes along a serpentine labyrinth, every here and there intersected by others. Not far from each other, on either side of these walks, small wicker doors are observed, on opening any of which he is surprised by the appearance of a court-yard and house, with the children, and all the usual cottage train, generally gambolling about: so that, while a man fancies himself in some lonely and sequestered retreat, he is, in fact, in the middle of a populous, but invisible, village.’

While the ships were here, a young man whose case had long been hopeless, died; and while the English carpenters made his coffin, the natives dug his grave. When the funeral was in preparation, a number of the principal inhabitants, dressed in their mourning habits, ‘white robes with black or blue sashes,’ were observed to be in waiting. While the arrangements were making for the ceremony, they were closely attentive to the proceedings; and when they had ascertained the plan by which they were adjusted, took their place in the procession, exactly where nothing less than the most consummate feeling of propriety could have directed them. The dead man's

‘messmates bore the coffin, covered with the colours; the seamen ranged themselves two and two, in the rear of it: next were the mid-

shipmen; then the superior officers; and last of all the Captain, as is usual in military ceremonies of this kind. The natives, who had been watching attentively this arrangement, and *observing the order of precedence to be inverted*, without the least hint being given, but with that unassuming modesty and delicacy which characterize them, when the procession began to move, *placed themselves in front of the coffin*, and in this order marched slowly to the grave.——They took the directions for the shape of a stone, to be placed at the head of a tomb, which, as a mark of respect, they had already begun to erect over the grave. This was soon finished, and the shape of the English letters being drawn with Indian ink, they, notwithstanding the simplicity of their tools, cut out, with much neatness, the following epitaph, which, when explained to them, seemed to be highly gratifying:—*Here lies buried, aged 21 years, William Hares, seaman of his Britannic Majesty's ship Alceste. Died Oct. 15, 1816. This monument was erected by the king and inhabitants of this most hospitable island.* The day after the interment they went to the tomb, with their priests, and performed the funeral service according to the rites of their own religion.'

Their skill in medicine and surgery is very small; their agriculture is simple; their dancing is performed on one foot only. It is somewhat singular, that 'almost the whole animal creation here is of diminutive size,' though all are excellent in their kind. Bulls, goats, and pigs are small, and the lords of the creation are themselves reduced to the average height of five feet two inches, but at the same time 'sturdy, well built, and athletic.' The origin of these islanders is decidedly not Chinese, but rather Corean or Japanese. They are of fair complexion. They seemed to be entirely without weapons of war. The effects of fire-arms excited their utmost astonishment, and they begged that their birds might not be killed, as they were 'glad to see them flying about their houses.' Their language is a dialect of the Japanese. A few days before the departure of the ships, a man of high rank, said to be next heir to the throne, visited them, and a pleasant interchange of entertainments took place. Nearly at the same time, a proposal was made by 'some great man,' probably the king, to the boatswain's wife; great promises were made, and we are sorry to say, that the overture was not instantly rejected; two days were taken for consideration, and ultimately the husband refused to part with his wife; we are surprised that Captain Maxwell should permit this hesitation. On the 27th of October, the ships unmoored, and the Lewchewers, in their best apparel, proceeded to the temple, and 'offered up to their gods a solemn sacrifice, invoking them to protect the *Engelees*.' How long shall this admirable people be destitute of religious truth? The parting was extremely affecting; the friendly natives crowded on board to shake hands; they took leave with tears; and 'even hard faced Buonaparte was not unmoved.'

When Captain Maxwell reached Macao, he found the Chinese disposed to throw every possible obstacle in his way, and to treat him with all imaginable insult. The return of the embassy was known, and the viceroy of Canton, released from the apprehensions

which he had felt of detection and punishment, was disposed to visit upon our countrymen, all the vexations which his fears had occasioned him. He harassed the traders, refused the General Hewitt permission to load, and treated Captain Maxwell with studied insolence. Captain M. applied for permission to pass up the river to a safe anchorage; this was refused, with an order that he should provide a security merchant to answer for his good conduct. Captain Maxwell intimated in reply, that a repetition of such a demand would put him under the necessity of ordering the messenger, a mandarin, to be thrown overboard, and stated his intention of waiting for a pass forty-eight hours, and that if, at the expiration of that time, it had not reached him, he should sail without it. The pass never came, the Chinese pilot 'sneaked off,' the locks and flints of the carronades, to the infinite delight of the crew, were inspected, and Mr. Mayne, the master, volunteered to carry the ship up. The Bocca Tigris, or Bogue, the channel up which the ship had to sail, was strongly fortified, and one hundred and ten pieces of cannon were so disposed, as with moderate skill, to make an assailant repent of his temerity. In addition to these defences, the Chinese '*grand fleet*' of war junks was ready for action. While the vessel was under way, a linguist came on board from the mandarins, desiring, in a high and domineering tone, that the ship should be directly anchored, and that, if we presumed to pass up the river, the batteries would instantly sink her.' Not satisfied with this piece of official insolence, he added some impertinent personalities to the Captain. Captain Maxwell 'calmly observed that he would first pass the batteries, and then hang him at the yard-arm, for daring to bring on board a British man-of-war so impudent a message.' His boat was cut adrift, and he was conveyed below. The junks now began to fire with blank cartridge, which was returned by the ship, *as a salute*.

'On the next tack we passed close to these warriors, who remained quiet until we got inside of them, and opened Chumpee; when that fort, little Annan-hoy, and the junks (now under weigh) began to fire with shot. At this moment the wind becoming light and baffling, we were obliged to drop anchor in Anson's bay, in order to hold the ground we had gained, and that they might not suppose they had driven us back; and in the act of wearing for this purpose, we gave the admiral of the junks a single shot only, by way of a hint. They immediately ceased firing; and their junks anchoring near us, all remained quiet until a little after eight o'clock, when a light breeze sprung up, which enabled us to lay our course, and the anchor was again weighed. The moment this was observed by the junks, they beat their gongs, fired guns, and threw up sky-rockets, to give the alarm, and in an instant the batteries were completely illuminated, displaying lanterns as large as moderate sized balloons, (the finest mark imaginable for us.) commencing also a warm, but ill-directed fire from both sides. Steering a steady course, the ship maintained a slow and regular fire, as the guns could be brought to bear, without yawing her. From the lightness of the breeze, which the cannonade seemed to lessen, it was a considerable time before we got abreast of the largest battery. At last, when within pistol-shot of the angle of it, and just before they could get all their guns to bear into the ship, a

whole broadside, with cool aim, was poured in among them, the two-and-thirty pounders rattling the stones about their ears in fine style, and giving them at the same time three *roaring* cheers. This salvo was decisive at this particular point; their lights disappeared in a twinkling, and they were completely silenced.—The Chinese linguist, who had crawled below, when he saw matters taking a serious turn, and having observed there was no joking in the case, began in real earnest to think, as one part of the promise had been fulfilled, that *his* time had now arrived. Coming trembling upon deck, he prostrated himself, and kissing the Captain's feet, begged for mercy. At that moment, hearing the order given to 'stand by the larboard guns for Tiger Island,' (on which we then supposed there was a battery) he said with a rueful countenance, "what! no hab done yet?"—"not half done"—was the reply.—"How many guns have you got on Tiger Island?"—but, without waiting to answer this question, (or, indeed, reflecting in his perturbation that there were none at all) he wrung his hands, groaned heavily, and dived again below.

These prompt and decided measures produced a very wholesome effect; permission was given by the crest-fallen viceroy for the General Hewitt to *load immediately*; and a high mandarin waited upon Captain Maxwell 'to welcome him into the river, and compliment him with all possible politeness.' Without a single casualty on our side, the Chinese lost in this foolish business forty-seven men killed, besides the average proportion *spoiled*, i. e. wounded. An additional advantage produced by it to the English was, that it compelled the viceroy to lay aside his intention of offering further and grosser insults to the embassy, and 'commanded as brilliant an entry for the embassy as ever had been witnessed on any other occasion.' Mr. M'Leod seems to have a mortal antipathy against every thing Chinese; their music he describes in the following choice phrase:

'By collecting together in a small place, a dozen bulls, the same number of jack-asses, a gang of tinkers round a copper caldron, some cleavers and marrow-bones, with about thirty cats; then letting the whole commence bellowing, braying, hammering, and catterwauling together, and some idea may be formed of the melody of a Chinese Orchestra.'

While they lay here, a circumstance occurred which showed at once the selfish apathy of the general character of the Chinese, and that the general rule is not without exception. In November, 1816, a small boat, containing three men, a woman, and a child, was run down at midnight by a junk, while several others were sailing near, without the smallest effort on the part of any of them to save a single individual. Providentially, their shrieks were heard on board the *Alceste*, and the hon. Mr. Stopford, the officer in charge of the watch, with several others, jumped into a boat, and came up in time to save the three men; the woman and child were lost. The next day

'one of them returned on board with a *cumshaw*, or present, of three wild ducks, which he presented on his knees to the gentleman who had saved him, stating that by the junk running over their *Sanpian*, he had lost his wife and a *bull-child* (his only mode of expressing a boy) and must himself with the other men have perished also but for the assist-

ance we afforded them. Pleased with this appearance of heart and gratitude, where so little was expected, some money and provisions were given him for his ducks, and he was allowed to bring on board fish and other articles for sale, which, from becoming rather a favourite, soon enabled him to repair the loss of his boat."

The embassy, after a separation of nearly five months, rejoined their naval friends at Canton. The transactions which there took place between Lord Amherst and the viceroy, we shall refer to elsewhere. On the 9th of January, 1817, the ships quitted China. At Manilla, the *Lyra* parted company, and sailed for India. A few interesting particulars are detailed respecting the Philippine Islands, for which we must refer to the volume, and pass on to that moment when every possible precaution being taken, the leads going in both chains, 'men looking out at the mast-heads, yard-arms, and bowsprit end, the captain, master, and officer of the watch, on deck, and keenly observant, just as they were clearing the straits of Gaspar, and leaving behind 'the last danger of this sort between them and England,

'the ship, about half-past seven in the morning, struck with a horrid crash on a reef of sunken rocks, and remained immoveable! It was soon indeed but too evident, that any attempt to move her would be attended with the most fatal consequences; for, on each side of the rocks on which she hung, the water deepened from ten to seventeen fathoms immediately around her; and from the injury received, she must have gone down in a few minutes, had she forced her way over this narrow reef.'

Captain Maxwell, in this trying exigency, conducted himself to admiration. He landed the ambassador on the island, about three miles and a half distant, exerted himself to secure the articles of most pressing necessity, and maintained by his calmness and resolution, the most complete control over the crew. Neither does Lord Amherst appear to have failed in the smallest portion of that dignity and self-possession which were now especially required from a man in his prominent station, as an example to others. After the necessary deliberation, it was determined that his lordship and suite should embark in the barge and cutter, and endeavour to reach Java. After what Mr. M'Leod calls a *fete champetre* in this wilderness, in which 'salt was received with the same horror as arsenic, forty-seven persons entered the boats, and among them a Mr. Somerset, 'who had come out,' as Mr. M. dryly remarks, 'to see a little of the world.' Their stock of provisions was exceedingly slender, and their supply of water (none had been found on the island) fearfully small. The number left behind was 200 men and boys, and one female, and of these, the most immediate anxiety was for a sufficient supply of water. For two or three days much misery was experienced from thirst; but at length, after digging upwards of twenty feet, muddy fresh water was procured; and afterwards from another well, it was obtained in larger quantity, and of better quality. In the mean time the wreck remained stationary, and hands were busily employed in stripping it of every thing useful; but on the third day after the ship had struck, the

party stationed at the ship were surrounded by a number of Malay proas, well armed and full of men; not a moment was to be lost they sprung into the boat along side and made for the shore, closely pursued by the pirates, but happily in vain. Soon after it was reported that 'the savages,' armed with spears, were landing. 'Under all the depressing circumstances,' says Mr. M., 'attending shipwreck; of hunger, thirst, and fatigue; and menaced by a ruthless foe; it was glorious to see the British spirit stanch and unsubdued.'

The stock of arms was small, consisting of a dozen cutlasses, thirty muskets and bayonets, and seventy-five ball cartridges; but every man, with right good will, contrived to arm himself in one way or another; and even a man who had been severely bruised by the falling of the masts, and was unable to stand, employed himself in *fishing*, with rope-yarn, the blade of an old razor to the end of two sticks, that if they came 'within reach of his hammock he might mark them.' An *abbatis* was formed, and though the present proved a false alarm, it was afterwards strengthened into a strong fortification. The next day the second lieutenant, Mr. Hay, with the boats, drove the pirates from the ship, but not until they had set fire to her, and by this dastardly and atrocious act, conferred upon our countrymen an unintentional benefit, as it enabled them to get at many articles which floated up when the decks were burnt away; among other things, a number of muskets and boarding pikes were secured, and from the loose powder which had been preserved, about sixteen hundred ball cartridges were made up.

'Wednesday, at day-light, two of the pirate proas, with each a canoe astern, were discovered close in with the cove where our boats were moored. Lieutenant Hay, (a straight forward sort of fellow) who had the guard that night at the boats, and of course slept in them, immediately dashed at them with the barge, cutter, and gig. On perceiving this, they cut adrift their canoes, and made all sail; they rather distanced the cutter and gig, but the barge gained on them. On closing, the Malays evinced every sign of defiance, placing themselves in the most threatening attitudes, and firing their swivels at the barge. This was returned by Mr. Hay with the only musket in the boat, and as they closed nearer, the Malays commenced throwing their javelins and darts, several falling into the barge, but without wounding any of the men. Soon after, they were grappled by our fellows, when three of them having been shot, and a fourth knocked down with the butt-end of the musket, five more jumped overboard and drowned themselves, (evidently disdaining quarter) and two were taken prisoners, one of whom was severely wounded.'

The proa went down almost immediately. The ferocity of the Malays was so untamable, that one of them, nearly dead, snatched at a cutlass which lay within his reach, and it was with difficulty wrested from him. The aspect of these wretches is described as truly hideous: they are an 'unjoyous race, and seldom smile.' At the same time, men so desperate in evil, might, if rightly taught, exert admirable energies in good; the conduct of the Malay offi-

cers and men in Ceylon, is a proof of their firm and honourable character, under circumstances favourable to its development. The dangers and emergencies of our countrymen began now to multiply, but their spirit, borne up by the admirable conduct of Captain Maxwell, never gave way. The Malay fleet was increased to a formidable amount, and demonstrations were made of a combined attack by sea and land. Preparations were made to receive them, and to seize their vessels when near the shore, but to the great disappointment of the besieged, the assault was not made. The number of the proas still continued to increase, and the little stock of provisions in Fort Maxwell to diminish alarmingly. Desperate measures seemed necessary, and were actually under discussion, when a square-rigged vessel was discovered in the horizon, standing towards the island under crowded sail; the pirates made off, and the party were shortly in communication with the Company's cruiser, Ternate. On the 7th of March, the whole were embarked either in the ship or in the boats, which, from the smallness of the vessel, were appropriated to a portion of the crew, and on the 9th reached Batavia. The whole time of their stay on the island called Pulo Leat, was nineteen days, and the providential interferences in their favour are thus enumerated:

‘We had great reason to be thankful that the ship did not fall from the rocks on which she first struck, into deeper water, for then all must have perished;—that no accident happened to the boats which conveyed the embassy to Batavia, for in that case, we should never have been heard of;—that we found water;—that no mutiny or division took place among ourselves;—that we had been able to stand our ground against the pirates;—and that the Ternate had succeeded in anchoring in sight of the island; which she was only enabled to do by a fortuitous slant of wind for an hour or two. Had we been unfortunate in any one of these circumstances, few would have remained to tell our tale.’

So decidedly providential was this preservation, that the ship Charlotte, which sailed from Batavia at the same time with the Ternate, and for the same purpose, after beating against wind and current from the 24th of February to the 16th of March, was unable to fetch further than the south-east end of the isle of Banca, the current constantly sweeping them to leeward as soon as they opened the straits. Mr. Mayne, the master of the Alceste, with two other gentlemen of that ship, who were now on board the Charlotte, anxious respecting the fate of their friends, ‘resolved to shove off in the barge,’ with a small store of provisions for their use. They rowed till the following day before they came in sight of the spot where they had left their companions; instead of whom they found a large flotilla of Malays, by three of whom they were instantly chased. The crisis was dreadful; they rowed for life, but the Malays, ‘in addition to their sails, pulled furiously, and were gaining fast.’ Our countrymen had seized their arms and were preparing to make their lives a bloody purchase, when a heavy squall came on, which compelled the pirates to strike sail, while the boat, ‘carrying through all, got a-head and escaped.’

On the 12th of April, the embassy, with the officers and crew of the *Alceste*, embarked for England in the *Cæsar*, Captain Taylor, and landed on their native isle, August 17.

During the passage, the ship took fire, but it was soon extinguished. On board the vessel was an Ourang Outang, of which an interesting description, but not containing any thing particularly novel, is given. Another passenger was of a very different kind, and a full account is given of his appearance and manners; this was a Boa Constrictor, 'somewhat small of his kind, being only about sixteen feet long and of about eighteen inches in circumference, but his stomach was rather disproportionate to his size.' There were originally two, but one of them had escaped from his confinement, 'and very soon cleared the decks, as every body very civilly made way for him. Not being used to a ship, however, or taking, perhaps, the sea for a green field, he sprawled overboard and was drowned.'

The other was safely secured in a properly constructed cage, and six goats were provided as 'live stock' for his consumption. A most horrible description is given of the terror and sufferings of one of these animals when put into the cage of the dreadful reptile. The snake at first scarcely observed the 'poor animal,' but at length fixed upon it 'a deadly and malignant eye.'

'The first operation was that of darting out his forked tongue, and at the same time rearing a little his head; then suddenly seizing the goat by the fore leg with his mouth, and throwing him down, he was encircled in an instant in his horrid folds. So quick, indeed, and so instantaneous was the act, that it was impossible for the eye to follow the rapid convolution of his elongated body. It was not a regular *screw-like* turn that was formed, but resembling rather a knot, one part of the body overlaying the other: as if to add weight to the muscular pressure, the more effectually to crush his object.'

The gradual process by which this tremendous animal devours his prey, has been so often described, that we shall not repeat it here, but we cannot refrain from expressing our aversion to the inhumanity which did not at least try the experiment, whether the snake would not have relished the goat fresh-killed, as well as when offered to it living. Mr. M'Leod expresses his feelings of 'horror and disgust' upon this subject with discrimination and energy. The reptile died between the Cape and St. Helena, and on dissection, 'the coats of his stomach were discovered to be excoriated and perforated by worms.'

At St. Helena, Lord Amherst and the principal officers were introduced to Napoleon, who, as usual, captivated the whole party by his address. 'Although there was nothing *descending* in his manner, yet it was affable and polite, and whatever may be his general habit, he can behave himself *very prettily* if he pleases.' His health is good, and his corpulence has been much exaggerated. His interview with Lord Amherst was private. When Captain Maxwell was introduced, he reminded him that he had formerly taken one of his frigates in the Mediterranean:—'*Vous étiez très*

mechant,—*Eh bien!* your government must not blame you for the loss of the *Alceste*, for you have taken one of my frigates.' He inquired of 'young Jeffery Amherst, what presents he had brought from China;' of Mr. M'Leod, what time he had served; of Mr. Abel, he made inquiries in natural history; of Mr. Cook, if he was a descendant from Captain Cook. Dr. Lynn was examined in medical science. He questioned Mr. Griffith, the chaplain, respecting the religion of the Chinese, and expressed his wishes that he might be 'made a prebendary.' In this way he accommodated himself to every one, going round the whole circle, and bowed to each as they retired.

We again recommend this volume as containing an uncommon variety of interesting matter. We wish that the surgeons of our ships of war, many of them men of talent and science, and with great opportunities of observation, would favour us in this unpretending and accessible way with the result of their adventures and inquiries. It is by spinning out the matter of lively octavos into tedious and unreadable quartos, that knowledge is oppressed and over-laid.

ART. V.—*Description of the picture*, Christ healing the sick in the temple, painted by Benjamin West, esqr. President of the Royal Academy of Great Britain, and presented by him to the Pennsylvania Hospital.

"And the blind and the lame came to him in the temple: and he healed them."

"And when the Chief Priests and Scribes saw the wonderful things that he did, and the children crying in the temple, and saying, Hosanna to the Son of David! they were sore displeased."

Matt. chap. xxi. v. 14, 15.

WHEN individuals devote their time and their talents, gratuitously, to the advancement of public good, every act they perform in furtherance of this object, demands our warmest acknowledgments. A munificent donation to a charitable institution must proceed from no common liberality in the donor, for, though sweet be the performance of a generous deed, it is rarely the attribute of those who enjoy the means. The design of at once contributing to the alleviation of helpless infirmity—promoting a school of historical painting, and the arts, here in their infancy—but most especially, of evincing an unimpaired attachment and reminiscence for the soil of one's nativity, is worthy indeed of a mind big with feeling conceptions. The moral influence of these impressions on such as are capable of appreciating them—the lesson they display for the imitation of others, add a weight of consideration to the benign motives of our venerable countryman, Benjamin West. After a separation of upwards of half a century, this eminent artist, confessedly at the head of his profession,—the labours of whose pencil are sought after with avidity by the crowned heads of Europe, turns with fond recollection to the land of his fathers, and, in the exercise of a pure philanthropy, amid surrounding seductions, considers the choicest efforts of his masterly pencil as eminently due in subservience to a pious and benevolent object, for no earthly requital but his country's benefit.

Thus much will be elicited from the most indifferent spectator acquainted with the history of the transaction, before he proceeds to express an opinion upon the painting in detail, respecting which so much has been written and so little understood. But concessions such as these are in no wise to screen the painting from full and free investigation as a work of art—the production of one liable, as all mortals are, occasionally to err, and, (as commonly happens) not exempt from imperfection because abounding with excellence.

The general effect, in the first place, is striking to the beholder, and that which pleases in the whole, may be considered an evidence of general merit in a performance, such as we believe no one, aware of Mr. West's estimation among artists, will be found to dispute. The rich glow of colouring, the relief afforded by the various groups that appear—the solemnity, interest, and suspense of the scene, all contribute to awaken those higher emotions which it is the peculiar glory of a master in the art to call forth.

The principal object that attracts attention is our Saviour. The superior dignity of his mien above all men, points him out at once, as he ought to be, the chief subject of notice. If any objection were to arise in contemplating the physiognomy, which, in studying character, is so material an index, it is perhaps that a sufficient degree of interest is not manifested in the objects presented. The countenance appears too little marked. "He was a man of sorrows, and acquainted with grief," and though his features were no doubt regular, as we learn from ancient writings, yet the convexity of the forehead, the smoothness of the visage altogether, do not present those occasional strong lines which accompany thought and reflection, and are always more or less indicative of the highest understanding. Midnight praying on the mount, and in the wilderness, must have furrowed that cheek with care and anxiety, which bespeak our sympathy with suffering. The eyes are expressive rather of acuteness than of benignity.

It is understood that modern representations of our Saviour are formed upon the traditions of the fathers, who have not all expressed themselves on this subject in an uniform manner. St. Jerome believes, that the lustre and majesty which shone about our Saviour's face, were capable of winning all hearts; it was this that drew the generality of his Apostles with so much ease to him; it was this majesty that struck those down who came to seize him in the olive garden.

St. Bernard relates, that the people followed him, and were attached to his person, by the allurements of the several graces that shone in him, by the sweetness of his conversation and discourses, and the lustre of his beauty. There is a majority in favour of these opinions, supported by scriptural authority.

"Thou art fairer than the children of men: grace is poured into thy lips.

Psalms, xlv. 3.

St. Chrysostom says, that the people were as it were nailed to our Saviour, and were never weary of seeing and admiring him.

Nicephorus is of opinion that St. Luke drew the pictures of Jesus Christ, the blessed Virgin, and the Apostles, and that by this means their images, represented to the life, were scattered over all the earth. It is certain that there has been always a particular tradition in the church concerning the figure and stature of our Saviour and his Apostles. Our Lord is thus described after the images which are believed to have been painted by St. Luke.

‘He was very beautiful in the face, and about seven spithamas, or six feet high; his hair was inclining to be very fair, not thick, but a little curled; his eyes-brows were black, and did not form exactly a semi-circle. His eyes were large, lively, and something yellowish; his nose long, his beard black, and pretty short; but he wore his hair long, for the scissors had never been used upon his head, nor had the hand of any one touched him besides that of his mother the Virgin, when he was as yet a child. His neck was not stiff, nor his carriage lofty or proud. He stooped a little with his head: his complexion was almost of the colour of wheat; his countenance neither round nor sharp, but like his mother’s, something longish, and pretty much upon the vermilion. Gravity, prudence, meekness, and clemency were painted in his face.’

Nicephor. Hist. Eccles. v. 2. c. 43.

In depicting the countenance of Christ, it may be supposed that great reflection must have been exercised before the imagination of the painter could satisfy itself with its own creation. Of all the component parts of the subject, it is unquestionably the most nice and delicate. It is for the painter or the poet alone to judge of the difficulties of such an occasion, when a happy moment may occur or be wanting, on which so much depends—when success is given, not to labour or industry, but to inspiration of genius—when, it is a fortunate conception in short, formed of the most exquisite assemblages in the mind, that decides the merit of the execution. It is so in poetry, it is so in painting, both nearly allied to each other.

The hands of Jesus, spread out in an attitude of annunciation, are exquisitely wrought, the right seems as if starting from the canvas, the left is contracted, which has given it the appearance of being smaller in size than the other. The drapery is perhaps rather too gaudy for one who, like truth, “needs no ornament.”

Immediately on the right of our Saviour is the Apostle John, whose inanity of expression (if consonant to marbles or traditions) yet seems scarcely to accord with his character in divine works, and pensive attitude in the painting. It is in deviations to effect a striking purpose, that the indulgence of the painter’s imagination is allowed and admired. He must sometimes improve upon strict historical truth, in pursuing the grandeur of his design. How much the great style, such as that before us, exacts from its professors to conceive and represent their subject in a poetical manner, not confined to mere matter of fact, may be seen in the cartoons of Raffaele. In all the pictures in which that painter has represented the apostles, he has drawn them with great nobleness; he has given them as much dignity as the human figure is capable of receiving.

All this is not falsifying the fact. It is taking an allowed poetical license.* A painter of portraits retains the individual likeness; a painter of history shows the man by showing his actions. A painter must compensate the natural deficiencies of his art. He has but one sentence to utter, but one moment to exhibit. He cannot, like the poet or historian, expatiate, and impress the mind with great veneration for the character of the hero or saint he represents. The painter has no other means of conveying an idea of the dignity of the mind, but by that external appearance which grandeur of thought does generally, though not always, impress on the countenance; and by that correspondence of figure to sentiment and situation, which all men wish, but cannot command. The painter, who may in this one particular attain with ease what others desire in vain, ought to give all that he possibly can, since there are so many circumstances of true greatness that he cannot give at all.

On the left of Christ is Peter, whose rugged aspect may well comport with an idea of the vocation he had left, as a fisherman, to follow his divine master. Matthew, farther on, appears the thoughtful spectator,—a man grave and sanctified, well qualified to bear witness to this miracle, and whose narration is the text of the picture.

Judas Iscariot is seen behind the Apostle Matthew, scowling upon the scene, with a look that betrays all the dark principles of his nature, which the painter, with infinite skill, has admirably contrasted with the open, undisguised expression of zeal in the next Apostle, a younger man, who appears in the act of encouraging the father of an insane boy to come forward and submit his unhappy son to the healing power. Here is one of the many hidden beauties of this extraordinary work, that reveal themselves more and more on an attentive study.

The blind man in front of the last mentioned Apostle, is an admirable copy of nature, the more true the nearer we compare it with real instances. His hand, grasping a stick, appears that of one living; his youthful son is represented to us, by the happy power of the artist, the all-dutiful child, and by the inclination of his head, the cast of his eyes, and even the little attention of disposing the hair, as though shipwrecked in hope, yet taught to expect the blessing, from the intent look he raises to regard the figure whence it is reported to flow; beneath, is the group of all others that most arrests the attention, on account of the singular felicity with which the figure of a sick man "nigh unto death" is represented, with hands uplifted, prayer quivering on his lips, and earnest expectation depicted in the strain of every feeble muscle of the face. The pallid hue of the body, the faithful delineation of the veins, the joints of the shrivelled hands, and the anatomical accuracy of the arms, the *toute ensemble* in short, convey so true a likeness of bed-ridden age,—to the effect of which, the white linen drapery, the grey locks, the number of figures interested, and importance given, by

* —————Pictoribus atque poetis,
Quidlibet audendi semper fuit æqua potestas.

Horat.

the support of two lusty bearers, have artfully added, that we are constrained to dwell upon this, as next to the figure of our Saviour, the principal object of attraction in the piece.

The sick man's daughter, holding his crutch, has a look of extreme anxiety, the mouth is gently open, the earnestness is thereby increased, while her outstretched neck accords with it. Her beautiful countenance is pale with long attendance on the sick couch, her emotion too evident to be misinterpreted; while care, seated on her brow, is strikingly contrasted with the unconscious gaze of a fine boy about four years old, accompanying her. Beyond these, on the right, a centurion is seen kneeling in an attitude of adoration and expectancy, grounded in faith, awaiting the fulfilment of the miracle. On the extreme right is an elderly female, apparently struggling with disease, who, by the distension of the eyes, and inclination of the body, seems striving to partake of the divine blessing. She is supported by two Roman soldiers, the taller of whom is a remarkably fine study; his limbs admirably proportioned, his countenance noble and with the Roman nose, were no doubt derived from choice models of the Italian school. Just above is seen an aged man sustaining his son, a maniac, who presents the spectacle of lost reason in all its horrors. Mr. West has no doubt taken this from some *Hospital for incurables*, for the wretched being appears in the extreme of frenzied aspect. What the mind feels a horror of, it can rarely bring itself to admire. But, though under the influence of such a feeling, it will pronounce on the merit of a faithful transcript from an original, if such there was in the present case. The physiologist will acknowledge that spare diet, close confinement, and paroxysms of passion, all contribute to communicate a livid paleness to the flesh, which, with the shaved head, (necessary where the brain is affected) and starting eyes, not inaptly denote the deprivation of mental possession. It was necessary to introduce human suffering in its most aggravated degree, in order to convey an adequate idea of the power of Christ, as well as to relieve the monotony of ordinary wo. In an elevated situation over this object, is a most beautiful young girl, the loveliest perhaps that imagination could paint, which agreeably softens the scene to the eye, but it is still more assisted by the amiable looks of the two sisters of the maniac, one of whom, clasping her hands, expresses the agony of her mind, and excites a peculiar sympathy in the beholder.

On the right of the picture, a woman kneeling, holds a sick infant; the complexion of the little sufferer well betokens malady, and in an easy posture, it reclines its head on the bosom of the mother, who is well described as a Jewess by her countenance. Above her, is a young girl blind, with a bandage of linen around her head, which, with the hectic flush upon her cheek, denote an inflammation of the brain; the artist has been very happy in this, but the father, though a fine head, expresses in the countenance too little earnestness for the occasion. The old woman next him must strike all as an exact representative of character within their recollection. In

the back ground stand the High Priest and Pharisees, whose dark visages allegorically portray the gloomy malice of their hearts. One of these, calling the attention of the other to his discourse, conveys a very natural idea of doubt and detraction.

In the distant perspective are seen the women who sold doves in the temple, hastening away, after the rebuke they had received, on our Lord's entrance into the "house of prayer." One of the candelabras of the holy temple is above them.

Such is the general outline of this grand picture—a *chef d'œuvre* of one whose fertility of genius in composition, profound skill in design and arrangement, with excellence in all that constitutes the painter's art, have combined to produce an inimitable work for our study and gratification. No subject of the canvas could be more appropriate for a hospital, none better calculated to excite a religious emotion,* to recal serious reflection, and to exhibit a ground of faith. The feelings of that man are not to be envied, whose piety would not grow warm in meditation upon the scene.

The artist may perhaps discover that the horizontal line of heads might have given way to a more angular arrangement, by altering the distribution of the scene, and chiefly the station of our Saviour as the key stone of the arch; but nature, (to follow which, is never to do amiss,) warrants a level range in crowds as well as any other. It is difficult to do full justice to a composition of between fifty and sixty figures, occupying an area of about one hundred and sixty square feet. Of every large composition, even of those which are most admired, a great part may be truly said to be common place; it was with this impression that Sir Joshua Reynolds, in his lectures from the very chair now so honorably filled by Mr. West, delivered his opinion in relation to minor objects. "It is not," says he, "the eye, it is the mind which the painter of genius desires to address, nor will he waste a moment upon those smaller objects which only serve to catch the sense, to divide the attention, and to counteract his great design of speaking to the heart."

It is not our intention to enter upon an analysis of the technical properties of this painting—suffice it to observe, that a want of harmony, of relief, or of judgment in colouring, would be felt, did it exist; and it is for those who view it to pronounce whether in this respect they are disappointed. Had such been the case, it is not likely that the vigilance of the painter would have been lulled, or the sensibility of his friends have been blind to its defects, prior to completion. We leave those who have studied the great productions of the celebrated masters, Raffaele, Vandyke, Titian, Michael

* A detail of the impressions produced upon the minds of the unfortunate persons under care in the Pennsylvania hospital for insanity, on their being admitted to view the picture, might be curious, and, perhaps instructive. One of these, a Mr. Nesbit, of respectable connexions, not without talent, and (as our readers will perceive by a specimen inserted) some poetic vein, we understand entered deeply into the interest of the occasion. The person of Jesus first arrested his notice, at which he was greatly moved, and asked, "is this our new Doctor come? Can he administer to the soul diseased?" Of Judas Iscariot, he observed, "he was not to be trusted, I never liked the man, and it is long since I broke with him."

Angelo, Corregio, and Parmegiano, to draw their own conclusions, founded on just inferences, arising from an attentive study of their distinguishing excellencies. To institute a comparison, where so little opportunity can be enjoyed of examining or refuting positions drawn from objects inaccessible to the majority of our population, would be scarcely compatible with candour and impartiality. On the grand merits of Mr. West there can be but one opinion,—on his relative rank with the defunct, it is for masters to decide. His honour among the living stands confessed by his station. Competent judges have pronounced the verdict of his fame, and we read it in his works. Its stability is sufficient to evince, that it has not been suspended upon the slender thread of fashion and caprice, but bound to the human heart by every principle of sympathetic tie.

We consider this an Epoch in the arts of our country, the era of the dawn of a rising genius, animated and encouraged by the successful example of a WEST; as such, it was creditable to the judgment and feelings of congress to pass a bill for the remission of the duties on the importation of this celebrated painting, and doubly so, considering the object to which it was to be applied. Mr. Newton, (of Virginia) in the House of Representatives, introduced this subject with his wonted taste and discernment.

The object of the bill, he observed, was to remit to the Pennsylvania Hospital the duties on a painting entitled "Christ in the temple healing the sick" presented to that institution by Benjamin West. The British government, with a liberality and promptitude that does honour to it, remitted every charge incident to the exportation. The receipt of it in this country would, Mr. N. observed, he trusted, be met by this government in a spirit not less gracious and liberal. The munificence of this celebrated artist, a munificence, the exercise of which belongs only to genius of a superior order and of extensive acquirements, would, he hoped, be acknowledged in such a manner as to manifest the sense this government entertains of the respect shown by him for this nation. The painting, Mr. N. added, is considered as the *chef d'œuvre* of his pencil. The present is designed as a memento of the love that illustrious man bears to his native land. It is also highly complimentary to the taste and judgment of this nation. The painting moreover reflects honour on this country, and extends its fame, as it is the production of an American.

In order that our readers may be enabled to estimate the value of this painting, we are enabled to state, from the first authority* that Mr. West was offered in London the sum of 3000 guineas for permission to exhibit it during a given period in New York, Boston, and Baltimore, after which, to deliver it uninjured into the possession of the managers of the Pennsylvania hospital, but this pro-

* The highly respected President of the Pennsylvania Hospital, Samuel Coates esqr. This truly benevolent character has borne an active part in the affairs of the hospital, as manager, for the last thirty-two years, during a great portion of which he has devoted nearly his whole time and attention to it.

posal Mr. West altogether declined, considering it a sacred observance to transmit this affectionate memorial direct, to be applied exclusively to purposes of charity.

"Thou shalt open thy hand wide to thy poor, and to thy needy in thy land." Deuteronomy c. xv. v. xi.

We owe it to the favour of the worthy president of the hospital, to be enabled to announce the earliest returns of the exhibition, so far as the same could be made up—a document, we believe, that will prove highly interesting to many of our readers.

The following are the most remarkable days:

1817.			
3d. November.	First day of exhibition,	513 visitors	128 24
20 - - -	Fast day observed in the state of Pennsylvania in consequence of a proclamation of governor Snyder to that effect - -	749 ———	187 29
25 - - -	Christmas day in the morning - 110 in the afternoon	563	
1818.		<u>673</u>	168 23
1st January.	New year's day -	589 ———	147 25

GENERAL SUMMARY.

1817.

Total number of visitors in November	8030 ———	2007 62
- - - - - December	4128 ———	1031 73

1818.

- - - - - † January	2827 ———	706 25
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In three months there were,	Visitors	14985 producing	3745 60
	28 tickets sold,		
	entitling to life admission, at ten dollars each	- - - - -	280 00

Total receipts in three months \$ 4025 60

† It should be remarked that the weather was most inclement in January, which, coupled with short days, and long distance to the hospital, are considerations to be weighed with this return. It is a rule with connoisseurs to view such paintings only by sunshine.

ART. VI.—*On the Utility of Fine Arts, in relation to the literary, scientific, and commercial character of a people:* extracted from a discourse, delivered on the opening of the Liverpool Institution 25th November 1817, by William Roscoe, Esq.

NOR is it alone to the emotions of gratitude and the sense of religion, that we are to attribute the expansion of those feelings which are expressed in works of literature and art. Whatever forcibly interests the affections of man, may be esteemed a concurrent cause of the efforts which he makes to communicate to another his own peculiar impressions. To sublime feelings, we may in all ages attribute the most affecting and refined productions of the human intellect.

The intimate connexion which subsists between literature and the arts, is in no instance more apparent than in their common origin, and the certainty with which they may be referred to the same principles of human nature. Those emotions of admiration, of gratitude or of love, which call forth from one the spontaneous effusions of warm and energetic language, excite in another person the desire of perpetuating the resemblance of the object of his affection, or of recalling to memory those scenes which had afforded him so much pleasure. Whilst the poet celebrates in elevated language the deeds of his hero, the painter animates his canvas with the same subject, and whilst the former relates to us an impassioned narrative, the latter brings the transaction immediately before our eyes. The course of improvement thus begun is encouraged by applause, and excited to a still higher pitch by emulation; till at length not only individuals but nations become distinguished by their superior proficiency in these pursuits.

A state of general tranquillity, and a government which admits of the free exertions of the mind are indispensibly necessary to intellectual improvement. But these are only negative advantages. Though the blossoms may escape the blight and the mildew, yet warm suns and timely showers are requisite before they can expand, and ripen their fruit. It would, in fact, be in vain to expect that the arts and sciences should flourish, to their full extent, in any country where they were not preceded, or accompanied, by a certain degree of stability, wealth and competency; so as to enable its inhabitants occasionally to withdraw their attention from the more laborious occupations of life, and devote it to speculative inquiries and the pleasures derived from works of art. Whenever any state has attained this enviable pre-eminence and enjoys also the blessings of civil and political liberty, letters and arts are introduced—not indeed as a positive convention of any people, but as a natural and unavoidable result. Nor has the cultivation of these studies been injurious to the prosperity, the morals, or the character of a people. On the contrary they have usually exhibited a reaction highly favourable to the country where they have been cherished; not only by opening new sources of wealth and exertion, but by exalting the views, purifying the moral taste, enlarging the intellectual and even the physical powers of the human race, and

conferring on the nation where they have once flourished a rank and a distinction in the annals of mankind, the most honourable and the most durable that can be attained.

Nor are the arts connected with design—as painting, sculpture and architecture, to be considered as a drawback on the accumulation of national wealth, or as useless dependants upon the bounty of a country. On the contrary, wherever they have been encouraged, they have contributed in an eminent degree not only to honour, but to enrich the state. How shall we estimate the influx of wealth into the cities of Italy in the sixteenth century, or into Holland and the Low Countries in the seventeenth, as a compensation for those works of art which, though highly prized on their first appearance, have continued to increase in value to the present day, and form at this time no inconsiderable portion of the permanent riches of Europe? See the productions of their artists sought after by the principal sovereigns and most distinguished characters of the times, who were proud to be represented by their pencils! and ask whether the remuneration conferred on their labours was exceeded by the profits obtained by single and individual exertions in any other department. If it be conceded that the person who can produce an article of the greatest value from the least material bears the prize from his competitors, who can compare with the painter? who with a few colours and a sheet of coarse canvas, may, if endowed with the genius of a WEST, produce, even in the present day, a work that shall be considered as inadequately recompensed by a sum of three thousand guineas; and that, at the same time, gratifies the taste, improves the moral sentiment, and confers honour on the artist and on the country of his birth.

I trust then it will be clearly understood, that it is not as a matter of pleasure and gratification merely, or in common acceptance, as an object of luxury, that I thus venture to recommend the cultivation of the fine arts. My purpose is to demonstrate their indispensable utility, and to show that where they are discouraged, no country must expect to obtain its full advantages, even in a lucrative point of view, much less to arrive at a high degree of civilization and prosperity, and to signalize itself in the annals of mankind. Whoever has attended in the slightest degree to this subject must acknowledge how intimately the improvements in manufactures have kept pace with the proficiency made in the arts of design. At the same time there are departments in which the arts have, by their own sole and independant energies, greatly contributed to the wealth and reputation of a country; as in the instance of Engraving.* Nor can a proficiency be made in the lowest de-

* Blest art! whose aid the Painter's skill endears.

And bids his labours live thro' future years;

Breaks that restraint, which to the world unkind,

To some one spot the favourite work confin'd;

Gives to each distant land, each future age.

The features of the warrior, saint, or sage:

partments of these arts, without an acquaintance with the highest. From one source only can the genuine stream be derived—although when once obtained, it may be diffused through innumerable channels.

But I begin to fear that I shall be misunderstood, and that in thus insisting on the direct advantages derived to a country from the cultivation of the fine arts, I shall be accused of treating the subject in a manner unworthy of you and of myself. I shall perhaps be told, that it is only in a commercial or manufacturing place that an idea could have occurred of seizing upon those arts, whose province it is to delight the imagination and to elevate the mind, and of chaining them down to labour in the dull round of pecuniary profit. My exculpation is very brief. If these arts are cultivated at all, the result which I have stated is unavoidable. If you will protect the arts, the arts will, and ought to remunerate you. To suppose that they are to be encouraged upon some abstract and disinterested plan, from which all idea of utility shall be excluded, is to suppose that a building can be erected without a foundation. There is not a greater error, than to think that the arts can subsist upon the generosity of the public. They are willing to repay whatever is devoted to their advantage; but they will not become slaves. If, in the infancy of their progress, some assistance should be requisite, such a necessity cannot long exist. The arts can only flourish where they command. Till an artist can produce a work of such merit, as to induce some individual to prefer it to its value in money, he ought not to expect a reward. It is a bounty and a degradation; and in its effects tends to mislead, and not to encourage the art. What should we think of giving a premium to the author of a worthless poem, by way of encouraging poetry? And yet it is generally from this class, both in arts and literature, that the complaints of the want of public patronage proceed. It was not thus with the great masters of former times. I speak not of those whose productions, stand on the summit of art, which add to their intrinsic value the incidental merit of rarity, and are, when met with, estimated beyond gold and gems—of a Raffaele or a Lionardo da Vinci—I allude only to those whose works are numerous and well known—a Titian—a Guido—a Rubens—a Rembrandt—a Vandyke, and a long train of other eminent artists in Italy, in Flanders, and even in France, who dispensed a favour as often as they finished a picture, and by upholding the dignity established the utility of the art.

The grace that seems with beauty's queen to vie;
The mild suffusion of the languid eye;
Till with the Painter's proudest works at strife,
The fragile paper seems to glow with life!

Fragment of a MS. Poem on Engraving.

ART. VII.—*Correspondence of Paul Jones.*

THE readers of this work will find on reference to the 8th volume of our series, a biography of this extraordinary character given at considerable length, and allusion made to certain letters which passed, soon after his descent upon the coast of Scotland, in 1778, between him and Lady Selkirk, respecting a transaction in which he was involved, with a view to carry off her husband, the Earl, from his house on St. Mary's Isle, in order to detain him as a hostage until terms should be agreed upon between Great Britain and America. We have now a copy of these letters, in a recent Edinburgh Magazine, with some others, relative to this daring captain, particularly one of Dr. Franklin, and another of the celebrated Polish patriot Kosciusko, as also one from the empress of Russia, which never before appeared in print.

The two letters of Jones were inserted in the newspapers at the time, but not in any durable or accessible Repository.

The name of Paul Jones is remembered with terror at this day along the Scottish coasts. He was the son of a small farmer, a few miles from Dumfries (Scotland;) and, impelled by that love of enterprize which is so frequently to be met with amongst the peasantry of that country, eagerly embarked in the cause of the colonies against the mother country. Whether he was actuated by a sense of the injustice of Britain towards America, at the outset of his career, or a hope of availing himself of the opportunities in which revolutionary warfare so greatly abounds to rise from his original obscurity, it is now perhaps impossible to determine, and unnecessary to inquire. But, it will be seen from the following letters, that, in the progress of his adventurous life, he was well inspired with the language that flows from a mind enthusiastic in the cause of liberty; and that he was honoured by some of its warmest friends in both hemisphere. It is impossible not to admire the kind and gentle feelings that influenced his conduct towards Lady Selkirk, so opposite to the character he was represented to be, and the very handsome manner in which he repaired the injury entailed by the policy adopted for securing the person of the Earl. There are probably few instances, especially among adventurers who have risen from the condition in which Paul Jones was originally placed,—of more enlarged views—more generous feelings,—and a more disinterested conduct, than these letters exhibit, combined as they are with sentiments of relentless hostility towards the claims of his native country. Such a picture, of which the view is at all times refreshing, ought to be held up to the eyes of those who are now engaged in similar struggles on an adjacent theatre. Good policy, in the absence of higher motives, may induce those who direct and regulate the movements of revolutionary warfare, as well as those who are impelled by the storm, to atone, in some measure, by acts of forbearance and generosity, for the injuries to which the helpless and the innocent are peculiarly exposed in the infuriate contests between a people and their rulers.

In the progress of the revolutionary war, Paul Jones obtained the command of a squadron, with which, in 1778, he undertook to annoy the coasts of Great Britain. On the 2d December, 1777, he arrived at Nantes, and in January repaired to Paris, with the view of making arrangements with the American ministers and the French government. In February he convoyed some American vessels to the Bay of Quiberon; and, on his return to Brest, communicated his plan to Admiral D'Aruilliers, who afforded him every means of forwarding it. He accordingly left Brest, and sailed through the Bristol Channel, without giving any alarm. Early in the morning of the 23d April he made an attack on the harbour of Whitehaven, in which there were about 400 sail. He succeeded in setting fire to several vessels, but was not able to effect any thing decisive before day-light, when he was obliged to retire.

The next transaction which took place on the same day, was the invasion of St. Mary's Isle, near the town of Kirkcudbright, where Lord Selkirk's house is situated. The particulars of this event, and of the action which succeeded, as well as the motives upon which Jones acted, are well given in the following letter, which he addressed to Lady Selkirk:

Ranger, Brest, 8th May 1778.

MADAM,—It cannot be too much lamented, that in the profession of arms. the officer of fine feeling, and of real sensibility, should be under the necessity of winking at any action of persons under his command which his heart cannot approve; but the reflection is doubly severe, when he finds himself obliged, in appearance, to countenance such action by his authority.

This hard case was mine, when, on the 23d of April last, I landed on St. Mary's Isle. Knowing Lord Selkirk's interest with his king, and esteeming, *as I do*, his private character, I wished to make him the happy instrument of alleviating the horrors of hopeless captivity, when the brave are overpowered and made prisoners of war. It was perhaps, fortunate for you, Madam, that he was from home, for it was my intention to have taken him on board the *Ranger*, and to have detained him until, through his means, a general and fair exchange of prisoners, as well in Europe as in America, had been effected.

When I was informed by some men whom I met at landing, that his lordship was absent, I walked back to my boat, determined to leave the island. By the way, however, some officers who were with me could not forbear expressing their discontent, observing, that, in America, no delicacy was shown by the English, who took away all sorts of moveable property, setting fire not only to towns and to the houses of the rich without distinction, but not even sparing the wretched hamlets and milch cows of the poor and helpless, at the approach of an inclement winter. That party had been with me as volunteers the same morning at Whitehaven; some complaisance, therefore, was their due. I had but a moment to think how I might gratify them, and at the same time do your ladyship the least injury. I charged the two officers to permit none of the sea-

men to enter the house, or to hurt any thing about it; to treat you, Madam, with the utmost respect; to accept of the plate which was offered and to come away without making a search, or demanding any thing else. I am induced to believe that I was punctually obeyed, since I am informed that the plate which they brought away is far short of the quantity expressed in the inventory which accompanied it. I have gratified my men; and, when the plate is sold, I shall become the purchaser, and will *gratify my own feelings*, by restoring it to you by such conveyance as you shall please to direct.

Had the earl been on board the *Ranger* the following evening, he would have seen the awful pomp and dreadful carnage of a sea engagement; both affording ample subject for the pencil, as well as melancholy reflection for the contemplative mind. Humanity starts back at such scenes of horror, and cannot but execrate the vile promoters of this detested war,

For *they*, 'twas *they*, unsheathed the ruthless blade,
And heaven shall ask the havock it has made.

The British ship of war *Drake*, mounting 20 guns, with more than her full complement of officers and men, besides a number of volunteers, came out from Carrickfergus, in order to attack and take the American continental ship of war *Ranger*, of 18 guns, and short of her complement of officers and men. The ships met, and the advantage was disputed with great fortitude on each side for an hour and five minutes, when the gallant commander of the *Drake* fell, and victory declared in favour of the *Ranger*. His amiable lieutenant lay mortally wounded, besides near forty of the inferior officers and crew killed and wounded.

A melancholy demonstration of the uncertainty of human prospects,—I buried them in the spacious grave, with the honours due to the memory of the brave.

Though I have drawn my sword in the present generous struggle for the rights of men, yet I am not in arms merely as an American, nor am I in pursuit of riches. My fortune is liberal enough, having no wife nor family, and having lived long enough to know that riches cannot insure happiness. I profess myself a citizen of the world, totally unfettered by the little mean distinctions of climate or of country, which diminish the benevolence of the heart, and set bounds to philanthropy. Before this war began, I had, at an early time of life, withdrawn from the sea-service, in favour of "calm contemplation and poetic ease." I have sacrificed, not only my favourite scheme of life, *but the softer affections of the heart*, and my prospects of domestic happiness; and I am ready to sacrifice my life also with cheerfulness, if that forfeiture would restore peace and goodwill among mankind.

As the feelings of your gentle bosom cannot, in that respect, but be congenial with mine, let me intreat you, madam, to use your soft persuasive arts with your husband, to endeavour to stop this cruel and destructive war, in which Britain never can succeed. Heaven can never countenance the barbarous and unmanly practi-

ces of the Britons in America, which savages would blush at, and which, if not discontinued, will soon be retaliated in Britain by a justly enraged people. Should you fail in this, (for I am persuaded that you will attempt it, and who can resist the power of such an advocate?) your endeavours to effect a general exchange of prisoners will be an act of humanity, which will afford you golden feelings on a death-bed.

I hope this cruel contest will soon be closed,—but, should it continue,—I wage no war with the fair!—I acknowledge their power, and bend before it with profound submission! Let not, therefore, the amiable Countess of Selkirk regard me as an enemy,—I am ambitious of her esteem and friendship, and would do any thing consistent with my duty to merit it.

The honour of a line from your hand, in answer to this, will lay me under a very singular obligation; and, if I can render you any acceptable service, in France or elsewhere, I hope you see into my character so far, as to command me without the least grain of reserve. I wish to know exactly the behaviour of my people, as I determine to punish them if they have exceeded their liberty.

I have the honour to be, with much esteem, and with profound respect, madam, your most obedient, and most humble servant,

(Signed)

PAUL JONES.

*To the Right Honourable the Countess of
Selkirk, St. Mary's Isle, Scotland.*

The correctness of the facts here stated is confirmed by the following account given at the time in the Scots Magazine.

“Between ten and eleven, a servant brought word, that a press-gang had landed near the house. This the party from the privateer had given out, in order, as was supposed, to get out of the way all the servants and others who might oppose them. Presently between thirty and forty armed men came up; all of whom planted themselves round the house, except three, who entered, each with two horse-pistols at his side; and, with bayonets fixed, they demanded to see the lady of the house; and, upon her appearing, told her, with a mixture of rudeness and civility, who they were, and that all the plate must be delivered to them. Lady Selkirk behaved with great composure and presence of mind. She soon directed her plate to be delivered; with which, without doing any other damage, or asking for watches, jewels, or any thing else, (which is odd,) the gentlemen made off. There is reason to think that there were some people among them acquainted with persons and places, and, in particular, one fellow, supposed to have been once a waiter at an inn in Kirkcudbright. The leader of the party, who was not the captain of the vessel, told, that their intention was to seize Lord Selkirk, who is now in London.”

It appears, accordingly, that Paul Jones actually purchased the plate, and embraced the first opportunity, after peace, to transmit it to Lord Selkirk, accompanied by the following letter:

Paris, February 12, 1784.

My LORD,

I have just received a letter from Mr. Nesbitt, dated at L'Orient the 4th instant, mentioning a letter to him from your son, Lord Daer, on the subject of the plate that was taken from your house by some of my people, when I commanded the Ranger, and has been for a long time past in Mr. Nesbitt's care. A short time before I left France to return to America, Mr. W. Alexander wrote me from Paris to L'Orient, that he had, at my request, seen and conversed with your Lordship in England respecting the plate. He said you had agreed that I should restore it, and that it might be forwarded to the care of your sister-in law, the Countess of Morton, in London. In consequence, I now send orders to Mr. Nesbitt to forward the plate immediately to her care. When I received Mr. Alexander's letter, there was no cartel or other vessel at L'Orient that I could trust with a charge of so delicate a nature as your plate; and I had great reason to expect I should have returned to France within six months after I embarked for America. But circumstances in America prevented my returning to Europe during the war, though I had constant expectation of it.

The long delay that has happened to the restoration of your plate has given me much concern, and I now feel a proportionate pleasure in fulfilling what was my first intention. My motive for landing at your estate in Scotland was to take *you* as an hostage for the lives and liberty of a number of the citizens of America, who had been taken in war on the ocean, and committed to British prisons under an act of Parliament, as "*traitors, pirates, and felons.*" You observed to Mr. Alexander, that my idea was a mistaken one, because you were not (as I had supposed) in favour with the British ministry, who knew that you favoured the cause of liberty. On that account, I am glad that you were absent from your estate when I landed there, as I bore no personal enmity, but the contrary, towards you. I afterwards had the happiness to redeem my fellow citizens from Britain, by means far more glorious than through the medium of any single hostage.

As I have endeavoured to serve the cause of liberty through every stage of the American revolution, and sacrificed to it my private ease, a part of my fortune, and some of my blood, I could have no selfish motive in permitting my people to demand and carry off your plate. My sole inducement was to turn their attention and stop their rage from breaking out, and retaliating on your house and effects the too wanton burnings and desolation that had been committed against their relations and fellow citizens in America by the British; of which, I assure you, you would have felt the severe consequence, had I not fallen on an expedient to prevent it, and hurried my people away before they had time for further reflection. As you were so obliging as to say to Mr. Alexander, that my people behaved with great decency at your house, I ask the favour of you to announce that circumstance to the public. I

am, my Lord, wishing you always perfect freedom and happiness, your Lordship's most obedient and most humble servant,

(Signed)

PAUL JONES.

*To the Right Honourable the Earl of
Selkirk, in Scotland.*

After his combat with the *Drake*, Paul Jones sailed round the north of Scotland, and, on the 5th of September, was seen off Lerwick. He did no damage, however, to the poor inhabitants. He then proceeded along the east coast of Scotland. In the middle of September he sailed up the Firth of Forth, and on the 17th was seen nearly opposite to Leith, below the island of Inchkeith. A violent south-west wind, however, having arisen, drove his squadron so rapidly down the Firth, as to be soon out of sight. He had taken and stripped a few prizes. He sailed next to the Texel, into which he carried, as prizes, two British vessels of war, the *Serapis*, and the *Countess of Scarborough*, which, after an obstinate engagement, he had captured near Flamborough Head. On this occasion, the British minister made urgent demands that the prizes, as well as Paul Jones himself, and his squadron, should be delivered up to his government. The Dutch, however, on the 25th October, came to this resolution: "That they could not pretend to judge of the legality or illegality of the actions of those who had taken, on the open sea, vessels not belonging to themselves; that they had merely given them shelter from storms, and would oblige them to put to sea, so that the British might themselves have an opportunity of taking them." To this resolution they adhered, notwithstanding the warmest remonstrances of the British minister.

During the course of Jones's stay at the Texel, he addressed the following letters to the Dutch Admiral, Baron Vander Capellen.

On board the Serapis at the Texel Oct. 19, 1779.

MY LORD,—Human nature, and America, are under very singular obligations to you for your patriotism and friendship; and I feel every grateful sentiment for your generous and polite letter.

Agreeable to your request, I have the honour to inclose a copy of my letter to his Excellency Dr. Franklin, containing a particular account of my late expedition on the coasts of Britain and Ireland; by which you will see that I have already been praised more than I have deserved. But I must, at the same time, beg leave to observe, that, by the other papers which I take the liberty to inclose, (particularly the copy of my letter to the Countess of Selkirk, dated the day of my arrival at Brest from the Irish sea,) I hope you will be convinced that in the British prints I have been censured unjustly. I was indeed born in Britain, but I do not inherit the degenerate spirit of that fallen nation, which I at once lament and despise. It is far beneath me to reply to their hireling invectives; they are strangers to the inward approbation that greatly animates and rewards of the man who draws his sword only in support of the dignity of freedom.

America has been the country of my fond election from the age of thirteen, when I first saw it. I had the honour to hoist, with my own hands, the flag of freedom the first time it was displayed on the Delaware; and I have attended it with veneration ever since, on the ocean. I see it respected even here in spite of the pitiful Sir Joseph (Yorke;) and I ardently wish and hope very soon to exchange a salute with the flag of this republic. Let but the two republics join hands, and they will give peace to the world.

Highly ambitious to render myself worthy of your friendship, I have the honour to be, my lord, your very obliged and most humble servant.

On board the Alliance at the Texel Nov. 29, 1779.

MY LORD,—Since I had the honour to receive your second esteemed letter, I have unexpectedly had occasion to revisit Amsterdam; and having changed ships since my return to the Texel, I have, by some accident or neglect, lost or mislaid your letter. I remember, however, the questions it contained; viz. 1st, Whether I ever had any obligation to Lord Selkirk? 2d, Whether he accepted my offer? and 3d, Whether I have a French commission? I answer, I never had any obligation to Lord Selkirk, except for his good opinion; nor does he know me or mine, except by character. Lord Selkirk wrote me an answer to my letter to the Countess, but the ministry detained it in the general post-office in London for a long time, and then returned it to the author, who afterwards wrote to a friend of his, (Mr. Alexander,) an acquaintance of Dr. Franklin's, then at Paris, giving him an account of the fate of his letter to me, and desiring him to acquaint his Excellency and myself, that "if the plate was restored by Congress, or by any public body, he would accept it, but that he could not think of accepting it from my private generosity." The plate has, however, been bought, agreeable to my letter to the Countess, and now lays in France at her disposal. As to the third article, I never bore, nor acted under any other commission than what I have received from the Congress of the United States of America.

I am much obliged to you, my Lord, for the honour you do me by proposing to publish the papers I sent you in my last; but it is an honour which I must decline, because I cannot publish my letter to that Lady without asking and obtaining the Lady's consent, and because I have a very modest opinion of my writings, being conscious that they are not of sufficient value to claim the notice of the public. I assure you, my Lord, it has given me much concern to see an extract of my rough journal in print, and that too under the disadvantage of a translation. That mistaken kindness of a friend will make me cautious how I communicate my papers. I have the honour to be, my Lord, with great esteem and respect, &c. &c.

Paul Jones continued in the American service during the remainder of the war, and, on the 14th April, 1781, the Congress voted to him an address of thanks, and presented him with a gold medal. At the peace of 1783, it was agreed that Jones should re-

turn some of the prizes taken during the war, but should receive a pecuniary indemnification. To arrange this transaction, he sailed for France, and arrived at Paris, where he was received with great cordiality. In the course of his residence there, he received the following letter from Dr. Franklin:

Havre, July 21, 1785.

DEAR SIR,—The offer, of which you desire I would give you the particulars, was made to me by Mr. Le Baron de Walterstorff, in behalf of his Majesty the King of Denmark, by whose ministers he said he was authorized to make it. It was to give us the sum of ten thousand pounds Sterling, as a compensation for having delivered up the prizes to the English. I did not accept it, conceiving it much too small a sum, they having been valued to me at fifty thousand pounds. I wrote to Mr. Hodgson, an insurer in London, requesting he would procure information of the sums insured on those Canada ships. His answer was, that he could find no traces of such insurance; and he believed none was made; for that the Government, on whose account they were said to be loaded with military stores, never insured; but by the best judgment he could make, he thought they might be worth about sixteen or eighteen thousand pounds each. With great esteem, I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient and most humble servant,

B. FRANKLIN.

Hon. Paul Jones, Esq.

We have also in our possession an original card of invitation to dinner from La Fayette, which shows the esteem in which he was held by that eminent character. He was satisfied as to his claims, and returned to America. But, in 1788, we find him offering his services to the Empress Catherine, by whom they were readily accepted. The following is the copy of a letter addressed to him by her Imperial Majesty upon this occasion:

Copy of a letter from her Majesty the Empress of all the Russias to Commodore Paul Jones.

Commodore Paul Jones;

A messenger from Paris, has just brought me, from my envoy in France, M. de Simolin, the enclosed letter to Count de Besborodka. As I think that this letter may contribute to confirm the truth of what I have verbally expressed to you, I transmit it to you, and beg of you to return it to me, because I have not caused a copy to be taken of it, having so much hastened to let it reach you forthwith. I hope it will efface all doubt on your mind, and that it will prove to you that you are about to be concerned under one who is very favourably disposed towards you. I entertain a confidence that, on your part, you will perfectly justify the high opinion we have of you, and that you will apply yourself zealously to maintain the reputation and high name, which your valour, and well known skill on the element on which you are about to serve, have acquired for you. Adieu.—I wish you health and happiness.

(Signed)

CATHERINE.

At Czarskocelo, 11th May 1788.

What were the circumstances which disgusted Jones with the service of her Imperial Majesty, we have not yet been able to learn; but it appears that, in 1790, he was engaged in a negotiation for entering into the Swedish service. This appears from the following very curious document, an original letter from Kosciuszko, addressed to "The Honourable Vice Admiral Paul Jones, Amsterdam," written more politely than elegantly in English:

Warsaw, 15th Feb. 1790.

MY DEAR SIR,—I HAD the honour to write you the 1st or the 3th of Feb. I do not recollect, but I gave you the information to apply to the Minister of Sweden at Hague, or at Amsterdam for the propositions, (according to what Mr. D'Engestrom told me.) They Boths had Order to Communicate you. I wish with all my heart that could answer your expectation. I am totally ignorant what they are, but I would see you to fight against the oppresion and Tyranny. Give me the news of every thing. I am, dear Sir, your most humble and most obedient servant,

T. KOSCIUSZKO. G. M.

Write me if you please who is Minister from America at Paris, I want to know his name.

This negotiation does not seem to have succeeded; and Jones in vain solicited employment from France. He died at Paris, in 1792, in great poverty. Colonel Blackden was obliged to raise a subscription to defray the expenses of his funeral. The National Assembly voted a deputation of their members to attend upon that occasion.

ART. VIII.—*Upon the Proper Manner and Usefulness of Translations.* By Madame la Baronne de Stael Holstein.—(From the Edinburgh Magazine.)

[THE following essay was among the last productions of the late madame de Stael. She made a present of her MS. to the editors of an Italian journal, who published it in their own language, and from whose pages I extract it—'Questo articolo, say they, e'della celebre baronessa di Stael. La sua Gentilezza si e compiaciuta de farne dono ed onore alla Biblioteca nostra e noi, nel dare la traduzione del nobile suo discorso, intendiamo di far cosa grata ad ogni lettore, e di render pubblica la nostra riconoscenza.' Ed. Edin. Mag.]

TO translate from one language into another the excellent productions of human genius, is the greatest benefit which can be conferred on the world of letters; for perfect works are so few, and invention is so rare, that were every nation to content itself with its own products, there is no nation in Europe which would not deserve to be called poor. There is no commerce in which the risk is so small, and the profit so great, as in the commerce of thoughts.

In the age of the restoration of letters, both the learned and the poets agreed to make use of no language but the Latin, that so they might have the advantage of being universally understood without the necessity of translations: and undoubtedly this idea was a

very excellent one, so far as the sciences were concerned, for solid information can very well be communicated without the graces of style. But even here the consequences were extremely hurtful to the interests of the great body of the people; for these could never derive any benefit from the scientific labours of their countrymen, since the accurate knowledge of the Latin tongue was at all times an accomplishment confined to the few. Moreover, the Latin language was very soon corrupted, in consequence of the uses to which it was thus applied; for the improvements of science were perpetually calling for the creation of new words, and the learned very soon found that the language of which they were making use was *dead*, indeed, but not *ancient*. The poets, on the other hand, had a greater regard for diction; and the consequence of this was, that they very seldom dared to depart either from the words or the phrases of the ancient poets. Italy gave birth to a race of new Romans, whose writings were in their own days considered as of equal merit with those of Virgil and Horace—such as Fracastorius, Politian, and Sannazarius. But now, if the fame of these authors be not entirely exhausted, their works at least have fallen into utter neglect, and are read only by the small number of the learned and the curious; so narrow and short-lived is that fame which is founded only on imitation. These Latin poets were translated into Italian by their countrymen, for it is at all times necessary that the language to which we are accustomed from our cradle, and of which we make use of in all the situations of active life, should be preferred by us to that which we are taught by masters, and meet with only in books.

I am well aware, that the best means to be independent of translations would be to acquire all the languages in which the great poets have written—Greek, Latin, Italian, French, Spanish, English, and German. But then what labour, what leisure, what assistance does this require! Who can hope that such erudition should ever become universal? and universal improvement must ever be the chief object of every one who is a well-wisher of mankind. I will say more:—even although one should have a very sufficient knowledge of foreign languages, when he takes up a good translation of a foreign poet into his own tongue, he will receive a pleasure yet more intimate and domestic than any which he has previously received from these writings, in the contemplation of those new colours and ornaments which his vernacular tongue is receiving from the appropriation of beauties to which it had in former times been a stranger. When the men of letters of any country are observed to be all and often guilty of repeating the same thoughts, the same sentiments, and the same phrases, it is a clear sign that the soil is impoverished: the best method of enriching it is, to translate the illustrious poets of other nations.

In the work of translating, if we would have our labour to be really profitable to our countrymen, we shall above all things be careful to avoid the besetting sin of French translators—that of writing in such a manner as to obliterate all traces of the origin of

that which we translate. He who turned every thing he touched into gold was very soon reduced to starvation. Such a method of translation deprives intellect of the nourishment which it ought to receive; that which is imported from abroad still wears the features to which we are accustomed, and we have gained little by adding to the stock of our home productions. The error of the French translators admits indeed of many apologies; with them versification is difficult, and rhymes are rare; they have no variety of measures, no facilities of inversion. The poor poet is shut up within so narrow a circle, that he is perpetually under the necessity of recurring, if not to the same thoughts, at least to similar hemistichs. The structure of French verse assumes naturally a wearisome monotony; and if this fault may sometimes be avoided; that must always be in the free and unfettered exertions of original genius. In translations wher every argument is pre-arranged, and every stroke of feeling has to be copied, there is no room for inspiration of a character so victorious and so sublime.

The French, accordingly, have scarcely any such thing as good poetical translations, except those of Virgil by the abbe de Lille. Our translators are indeed very excellent imitators; they transform whatever they meet with abroad into good French, with so much success, that no one would ever suspect their productions of being any thing else than the original writings of Frenchmen. We have, however, no poetical translation which is at once excellent in French, and stamped with the character of its origin; I believe that it is impossible we shall ever have any such translations. If indeed we with reason admire the Virgil of De Lille, the reason of his unequalled success must be sought for in the resemblance which our language still preserves to the Latin, from which it is descended, and the felicity with which it can still imitate the pomp and majesty of its original. The modern languages, on the other hand, are all so different from ours, that we cannot imitate them closely without sacrificing the greater part of those graces which are peculiar to our own.

The English, who enjoy a much greater liberty of versification, as well as of inversion, might have easily become rich in translations at once exact and natural. But the great authors of their nation have been too proud to stoop to the fatigue of translation; and although Pope (the only exception) has formed two beautiful poems from the Iliad and the Odyssey, he has certainly retained not one point of that antique simplicity in which we feel the secret power and charm of the style of Homer.

It is not probable, that for three thousand years the world has never produced any poet of genius equal to that of Homer. But in the traditions, in the customs, in the opinions, in the whole appearance of the Homeric age, there is preserved a certain charm of primitive simplicity, which affords us an inexhaustible delight. In reading Homer we are carried back to the youth of man, to the beginning of ages, and our minds are perpetually agitated with a pleasing remembrance of the feelings and thoughts of our own

early years; and this internal commotion, mingled as it is with the images of a golden age, renders it necessary that the most ancient should at all times be the most favourite of poets. If we remove from the Homeric composition this simplicity of an infant world, it loses that quality which is its most peculiar characteristic, and sinks more into a level with the productions of after-times.

It is a very favourite notion among the scholars of Germany, that the Homeric works were not composed by one individual; that the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* are a collection of separate many poems, in which Grecian genius had celebrated the capture of Troy, and the return of its conquerors. It appears to me that it is no very difficult matter to refute this opinion, and that the unity of the plan of the *Iliad* renders altogether absurd the supposition that that poem was composed at different times and by different persons. Why should the wrath of Achilles have been the perpetual theme of the poets? The incidents which occurred in the sequel,—above all, the capture of the city itself, which brought about the conclusion of the war—could scarcely have failed to be the subject of some of those *rhapsodies*, had these been the works of different authors, and to have formed a part of any poem which was intended to be a compend of all that had been composed by the best of the Greek poets concerning the fate of Troy. To select one only out of so many remarkable events, and to arrange, in subordination to this, all the other accidents which fill up the *Iliad*, seems to be evidently the design of one master-spirit, who was not likely to intrust into other hands the execution of his plan. I mean not to enter into any regular dispute on this subject; to do that would require an erudition to which I make no pretensions: all I shall say is, that if any other poets contributed to the *Iliad*, they must have been of the same age with Homer himself. It would be easier to persuade me that it was composed by different hands under the direction of one chief, than that any spirit of an after age could have caught the true tone of times and manners so widely differing from his own.*

But if the Germans have, on the one hand, done all in their power to deny the personal existence of Homer, they have in so far at least atoned for this insult, by the labours which they have bestowed on the Homeric writings. The translation of Voss is reputed by his countrymen to bear more resemblance to the original than any version which exists in any other language. He alone, say they, has made use of the Homeric measure, and his German hexameters follow word for word the hexameters of the Greek original. I am very willing to believe that such a method of translation may be the most effectual way of introducing the reader to a precise knowledge of the structure of the ancient poem; but I have great doubts whether a writer capable of following such a plan in his

* We hope very soon to lay before our readers a full account of the argument on both sides of this Homeric controversy. The opinions, as well as the reasons of madame de Stael, are just what might have been expected from a believer in Ossian.

translation, can be a likely person to transfuse into his native language that soul of poetry which can never be either taught by rules or acquired by study. His syllables may be the same in number with those of Homer,—but how can the harmony of his sounds be the same? The German poetry may indeed lose much of its natural sound by so strict a copying of the Greek, but it is altogether impossible that it should ever represent the unrivalled music of that ancient verse, which was originally intended for the accompaniment of the lyre.

Among the modern languages of Europe, the Italian is certainly the best adapted for expressing all the varied sentiments and passions of the Greek Homer. It possesses not indeed the Homeric measure, but in truth nothing worthy of the name of hexameter verse can possibly exist in any modern language, for the whole system of modern versification is founded upon principles with which those of ancient versification have no connexion. Nevertheless the sound of the Italian language may certainly boast of a harmony which has no need of dactyls and spondees: and, in its grammatical construction, it is capable of all the flexibility of the Greek. In the blank verse of Italy, where the impediment of rhyme is absent, the flow of thought may be as free as in prose, and preserve at the same time all the grace and majesty of poetical measure.

Europe has undoubtedly no translation of Homer which approaches so near, both to the strength and the beauty of the original, as that of Monti. This writer has discovered the secret of uniting pomp with simplicity;—the most ordinary transactions of life are elevated to a poetical dignity, by the unaffected grace of his language;—the truth of his painting, and the facility of his style, enable him to bring before us the actions and the men of Homer, without depriving them of that heroic greatness which is the peculiar characteristic of their original age. No Italian will ever in time to come, attempt to translate Homer, for it would be impossible to reconcile Italy to see Homer stript of the clothing in which Monti has invested him. To me it appears certain, that even in the other countries of Europe, such readers as are incapable of perusing Homer in his own language, will both know him best, and enjoy him most, by means of the Italian translation. It is impossible to translate a poet with the same accuracy with which an architect can copy a building; a poem, well translated, should resemble a fine piece of music repeated upon a different instrument. The harmony will lose little of its effect, although the tones be different.

In my opinion, the best thing the Italians could do would be to translate with diligence the great modern poets of England and Germany;—their countrymen have great need to be shown something new, for they are still satisfied with the use of the ancient mythology, and do not perceive how antiquated these fables appear since they have been altogether abandoned by the other nations of Europe. If the intellects of the Italians would not lie inactive,

they should be often directing their attention to the other side of the Alps. I do not wish them to assume foreign fashions, but they should at least know what these are. I do not wish that they should become imitators, but I am anxious that they should get rid of that system of ancient observances, which has been as injurious to their literature, as the set phrases of society among ourselves have been to the natural wit and ease of conversation. But if they might derive much advantage from all sort of poetical translations, there is no doubt that they might gain most of all by translations of dramas. Shakspeare, translated with the most exact resemblance by the masterly pen of Schlegel, has been represented on the theatres of Germany in the same manner that he would have been had he himself been born the countryman of Schiller. The Italians might easily procure as great a benefit for themselves, for the French tragedians approach as near to the Italian as Shakspeare does to the German mode of writing; nor is it possible to doubt as to the effect which *Athalie* would produce, were it represented on the beautiful theatre of Milan, and accompanied in its chorusses by the stupendous music of Italy. It may be objected to all this, that people go to the theatre in Italy, not to hear tragedies, but to see company. I know nothing so likely to darken the intellect of a nation, as the custom of listening for five hours a-day to such things as are called *the words* in an Italian opera. But when Casti composed his comic dramas, and when Metastasio adapted his noble and graceful sentiments to musical accompaniment, their countrymen made no complaint that their diversions were diminished. During the present reign of dulness which characterizes all the private and public assemblies of Italy, he who should succeed in uniting something of instruction with the popular amusements, would deserve to be called a benefactor of his country. He might perhaps infuse something of serious and thoughtful into Italian breasts, and rescue his nation from the reproach of doing nothing.

At the present time, in the Italian literature, there is one class of writers who do nothing but dig among the ashes of the dead in the hope of finding here and there a grain of gold;* and another, of writers who have no other capital than a great confidence in the harmony of their language, and do every thing they can to exhaust the patience of their readers, by a repetition of fine sounds destitute of meaning, declamations, invocations, and exclamations, to which our hearts are always shut, because we can perceive that they do not proceed from the heart of those who utter them. Is it a thing beyond all hope, that a desire of being applauded on the stage shall ere long conduct Italian spirits to that which is the on-

* Madame de Stael seems here to have had in her view a noble passage of Cowley:

‘ Why call up ghosts? why idly stand
To search, with vain divining wand
Among the dwellings of the dead,
For treasures buried——
While yet the liberal earth doth hold
So many virgin mines of undiscovered gold?’

ly source of invention—meditation,—and to that truth, in conceptions and in language, without which there can be no such thing as a good literature,—the want of which is sufficient to render useless all the other elements of which a good literature must be composed? The drama is a favourite amusement in Italy; it is to be hoped that it would not become less so were it to acquire a character of greater seriousness and usefulness. At the same time, I am very far from wishing to see banished from the Italian stage, that spirit of wit and mirth which once enlivened it. All good things ought to be on good terms with each other.

The taste of the Italians, in the arts, is simple and noble. Now, language is one of the fine arts, and ought to have the same qualities with the others. It is indeed an art of more intrinsic importance than any other to the essence of man; for we can do much better without pictures, statues, and monuments than without those images and feelings to which pictures, statues, and monuments are consecrated. The Italians admire and love their own language in the highest degree; they may well do so, for it has been ennobled by writers of the highest genius; and the Italian nation has never had any glory or any pleasure except what has been derived from the exertions of its genius. An individual may indeed be disposed by nature to exert his intellect, but he requires a national stimulus to obey the voice of nature. To some this stimulus is furnished by war, to others by politics; the Italians must look for all *their* distinction in arts and letters; but for these they must long since have fallen into a lethargic sleep of obscurity, from which there could be no possibility of arousing them. T.

ART. IX.—*Further particulars of Rob Roy, and some branches of his family.*

(Continued from page 139.)

THE arbitrary and uncertain tenures, by which proprietors in the Highlands held their lands and supported their consequence for many ages, had, even at this late period of their history, scarcely been subjected to any material amendment. Those laws formed for the protection of individual right, were in those regions but slightly regarded, as their distance from the seats of government seemed to place them beyond legal authority. Without, therefore any reliance upon statutes to enforce justice or repress vice, the most powerful were the most successful in suppressing inferior chieftains, and grasping vast territories for themselves, which frivolous and unjust pretences were often considered sufficient for the purpose.

Against such acts of violence and iniquity, though overlooked by the indifference of government, did Rob Roy Macgregor manfully and openly draw his sword. He was the strenuous opponent of every deed of cruelty or breach of faith, especially if committed upon those under the pressure of misfortune; the poor, the orphan, the widow, were those for whom he stood boldly forward, and was the avowed champion; and lest his own resources might

not be adequate to those charitable ends, he entered into agreement with different proprietors for their mutual defence; and a contract, founded upon this reciprocal basis, was entered into betwixt him and Buchanan of Arnprair, in 1693; and with the Campbells of Lashnell, Glenfalloch, Lashdochart, and Glenlyon, about the same time.

Contracts of *wadset*, as it was called, were then a common practice in the Highlands, and many small proprietors were swallowed up by superiors, from the undue advantage which was taken under the supposed obligations of those agreements. Many flagitious means were adopted to evade and disannul the redeemable privileges of the proprietor, and from the extraordinary authority which a superior claimed over his vassals during the feudal ages, it was scarcely possible for the inferior to resist his rapacity, or to defend his lawful heritage against such powerful odds.

Upon one of those redeemable bonds of *wadset* were the lands of Glengyle, when Rob Roy's nephew succeeded to them. A neighbouring chieftain of the Campbells had lent a sum of money on them, in this way, which, if not restored in ten years, the lands were to be the forfeiture, though the sum was not half their value. Rob, knowing that every advantage would be taken of the contract, gave his nephew the money, and he went to retire the bond. The period of redemption was exhausted to a few months; and under pretence that the bond could not then be found, the money was refused. Rob, in the meantime, had been employed in some other affair, and the matter having lain over, the bond was allowed to expire. The holder of it sent a party to take possession of the estate in his name; got himself infested on it in the common form; and the owner, young Macgregor, was ordered to remove himself, his dependants, and cattle, in eight days. Rob would not suffer such treatment; and having assembled his *gillies*, set out to make restitution. The nobleman whom he sought was then in Argyllshire, whither Rob proceeded; but he met him travelling in Strathfillan, took him prisoner, and carried him to a small inn not far distant. He told his lordship, that he would not part with him until he produced the bond of Glengyle, and desired that he would instantly send for it to his castle. His lordship knowing Rob's disposition, and apprehensive of personal injury, agreed to give it up when he got home; but our hero put no trust in his promise, and he was forced to comply. Two trusty men, along with two of Rob's were dispatched, and at the end of two days returned with the bond. When it was delivered, his lordship demanded his money; but Rob would pay none, telling him, that the sum was even too small a fine for the outrage he had attempted, and that he might be thankful if he escaped in a sound skin.

Prior to this transaction, and before Rob was noticed by them, the family of Argyll, like some other mighty chiefs, were desirous of reducing the puisne barons within their reach to servile dependence, and they seized upon the lands of those who did not hold them by subordinate charters. For this purpose, a knighted

elève of the family's was appointed, and among other small estates, which he had by this iniquitous rule annexed to the property of Argyll, was one situated in Glendochart. Rob sent his lads to Glenurchy to waylay this knight; whom, having secured, they conveyed him towards Tyndrum, where Rob met them. He reproached the knight with his injustice, and made him sign a letter, restoring the lands to the right owner; and when he had done this, he took him to St. Fillan's Pool, near that place, and ducking him heartily, told him, that from the established virtues of that pool, a dip in it might improve the knight's honour, so that he would not again rob a poor man of his land.

To supply the wants of the poor with the means of the rich, was our hero's greatest delight, and an appeal to his generosity was never disregarded. On his way to meet Graham of Killearn,* chamberlain of Montrose, as before stated: he gave a poor man money to pay three years rent, of which he was deficient; and when the man afterwards offered to repay the loan, he would not receive it, as he said he had got it back that same day from Killearn. To a widow, who was also in arrears for the rent of her farm, he gave a receipt in name of Montrose, which was sustained, as that nobleman found it convenient sometimes to smooth Rob's hostility by overlooking moderate offences.

On the estate of Perth, a clansman of Rob's occupied a farm on a regular lease; but the factor, Drummond of Blairdrummond, took occasion to break it, and the tenant was ordered to remove. Rob Roy, hearing the story, went to Drummond Castle to redress this grievance. On his arrival there, early on a morning, the first he met was Blairdrummond, in front of the house, and knocking him down, without speaking a word, walked on to the gate. Perth, who saw this from a window, immediately appeared, and, to soften Macgregor's asperity, gave him a cordial welcome. He told Perth, that he wanted no show of hospitality, he insisted only to get back the tack of which his namesake had been deprived, otherwise he would let loose his legions upon his property. Perth was threatened into compliance, the lease was restored, and Rob sat down quietly and breakfasted with the earl.

The cause of provocation which Macgregor sustained from Montrose, by the alienation of his estate of Craigrostan, as formerly mentioned, was aggravated by the dastardly treatment given to his wife by Killearn, in his absence; and it is not surprising, that he did every thing in his power to annoy them. In the gentle punishment he gave the latter for his unmanly outrage, we must admire his forbearance; but the impression which those matters seem to have made on his mind, constantly kept alive that spirit of opposition with which he regarded them; and though he often had them in his power, he never intended to take personal revenge, preferring occasional retaliation on their property.

In his depredatory incursions, cattle and meal appear to have been the chief articles of his attention. He scarcely raised any

* Formerly written—Graham of Orchil, by mistake.

grain on his own farms, and when he, or any of his people, or any poor person, were in want of meal, he went to a store which Montrose had at Moulin, ordered the quantity he required, gave the keeper a receipt for it, and made the tenants, with their horses, carry it to his house, or wherever else it was wanted.

The more deliberately to carry on those inroads, he and his men, for he never had less than twelve, casually occupied a cave at the base of Ben Lomond, on the banks of the lake. This recess has its entrance near the water's edge, among huge fragments of rock broken from that stupendous mountain, and fantastically diversified by the interspersions of brushwood, heath, and wild plants, matured in the desert luxuriance of solitude.

But Rob, though generally favoured by fortunate incidents, could not always expect to get off with impunity; and after having many things in his own way, he at length pressed too hard on Montrose, that he was constrained to call out a number of his people, who headed by a confidential Graham, and accompanied by some military, were sent forth to lay hold of Macgregor. Rob and his band chanced to be absent when the Grahams assailed his house; but they learned the course he had taken, and, by day-break next morning, arrived at Crinlarach, a public house in Strathfillan, where our hero and his men had taken quarters for the night—he in the house, and they in an adjoining barn. The Grahams did not wait to gain admission to the house, but broke open the door. Rob was instantly on his feet and accoutred. He levelled them man by man as they came to the door, until his own lads, roused by the noise, attacked the Grahams in the rear with such hard knocks, that they retreated to some distance, leaving behind them several of their party sorely wounded; and Rob, having fortified his men with a glass of whisky, ascended the hill towards Glenfallach. The Grahams, expecting to obtain some advantage over them, followed at a little distance, till Rob's men shot some of the military, and drowned one soldier in a mill-dam, when the Grahams thought proper to withdraw.

After this inglorious trial to overcome Macgregor, though with five times the number of men, Montrose ceased for a while to give him any obstruction, until Rob now grown, if possible, more courageous than ever, made a descent into the plains, and swept away cattle, and every moveable article, from the country round Balfroun and other parts; and this was commonly called, *the herri-ship of Kilrain*. This appears to have been the greatest misdemeanor of which he stood accused, as it attracted the notice of government; and the western volunteers were marched into the Highlands to curb the insolence of Rob Roy and his thievish clan, as they were denominated. These volunteers went to Drymen, but finding their entertainment very bad, and the people disaffected, they lay upon their arms all the night, dreading the approach of the Macgregors, who were within a few miles of them, to the number of 500; but they were not molested, being allowed to depart in peace. Several parties of horse, however, were afterwards

dispersed over the country to apprehend Rob, and a reward offered for his head, which obliged him for some months to take shelter in the woods, and in the cave at the side of Loch Lomond.

While under this concealment he was only attended by two men. One day, when travelling in a sequestered place along the side of Lochearn, they were unexpectedly met by seven horsemen, who demanded their names and what they were, to which they gave an evasive answer; but, from our hero's great stature and warlike dress, they had no doubt of his being the person they sought, and desired him to surrender. There was no time for reply, and they sprang up the hill, followed by the troopers. Rob rapidly mounted the higher ground, where neither the horses nor the fire of the riders could touch him; but his companions were not so lucky, as they were overtaken and killed; and being exasperated at this, he fired upon the troopers in return, and killed three of them and four of their horses, when they galloped away.

Having continued to wander from place to place, somewhat forlorn, though not broken in spirit, he became solicitous about the safety of his family, and had them privately removed to a remote situation at the head of Glenfine, among the mountains of Argyll. To this solitude some of his faithful adherents accompanied him, and soon erected habitations for their accommodation; which being finished, Macgregor waited on his protector the Duke of Argyll, to inform him of what he had done.

From this place he and his people paid frequent visits to the lands of Montrose and Athol, from whom they abundantly supplied their wants. But when Montrose understood that Rob had an assylum from Argyll, he wrote to him desiring that the outlaw might be removed from his castle, and given up to justice, and blaming Argyll for having given him any countenance. Argyll replied, that the abode which Rob Roy occupied he had taken without leave, and that he supplied him only with wood for fire, and water for drink; and he believed, that with every thing else Rob would supply himself.

Having found this new retreat, though secure and distant, both inconvenient and uncomfortable, and their enemies having relaxed in their pursuit, they left the bleak hills of Argyll, and again took up their residence on the soil of their nativity.

The various assaults to which Rob Roy had been accessory upon the Earl of Athol and his numerous vassals, were not dictated by malice, or a wish for spoil, but continued as a chastisement for the contempt in which he was held by that nobleman, who did not respect his bravery, although he had often seen and dreaded its effects. Rob having shewn no inclination to desist from those practices, Athol resolved to correct him in person as all former attempts to subdue him had failed, and with this bold intention he set forward to Balquhiddar. A large portion of that country then belonged to Athol; and when he arrived there, he summoned the attendance of his vassals; who very unwillingly accompanied him to Rob's house, as many of them were Macgregors, but dared not refuse

their laird. Rob's mother having died in his house, preparations were going forward for the funeral, which was to take place that day; and on this occasion he could have dispensed with such unlooked for guests. He knew the purpose of their visit, and to escape seemed impossible; but, with strength of mind and quickness of thought, he buckled on his sword, and went out to meet the earl. He saluted him very graciously, and said, that he was much obliged to his lordship for having come, unasked, to his mother's funeral, which was a piece of friendship he did not expect; but Athol replied, that he did not come for that purpose, but to desire his company to Perth. Rob, however, declined the honour, as he could not leave his mother's funeral, but after doing that last duty to his parent, he would go if his lordship insisted upon it. Athol said the funeral could go on without him, and would not delay. A long remonstrance ensued; but the earl was inexorable, and Rob, apparently complying, went away amidst the cries and tears of his sisters and kindred. Their distress roused his soul to a pitch of irresistible desperation, and breaking from the party, several of whom he threw down, he drew his sword. Athol, when he saw him retreat, and his party intimidated by such resolution, drew a holster pistol and fired at him. Rob fell at the same instant, not by the ball, which never touched him, but by slipping a foot. One of his sisters, the lady of Glenfallach, a stout woman, seeing her brother fall, believed he was killed, and making a furious spring at Athol, seized him by the throat, and brought him from his horse to the ground. In a few minutes that nobleman would have been choked, as it defied the by-standers to unfix the lady's grasp, until Rob went to his relief, when he was in the agonies of suffocation.

Several of our hero's friends, who observed the suspicious haste of Athol and his party towards his house, dreading some evil design, speedily armed and running to his assistance, were just arrived as Athol's eye-balls were beginning to revert into their sockets. Rob declared, that had the earl been so polite as allow him to wait his mother's burial, he would have then gone along with him; but this being refused, he would now remain in spite of all his efforts; and the lady's embrace having much astonished the earl, he was in no condition to renew his orders, so that he and his men departed as quickly as they could. Had they staid till the clan assembled to the exequies of the old woman, it is doubtful if either the chief or his companions had ever returned to taste Athol brose.

Though Rob Roy Macgregor was conscious how little the personal virtues of the Stewart family entitled them to support, he yet considered their right to the crown as hereditary, and consequently indefeasible; and from this conviction, he resolved that his exertions should be directed to their cause. When the clans, therefore, began to arm in favour of that house, in 1715, he also prepared the clan Gregor for the contest, in concert with his nephew, Gregor Macgregor of Glengyle.

A large body of Macgregors were at this time collected, and became very formidable. They marched into Monteith and Lennox, and disarmed all those whom they considered of opposite principles. Having secured all the boats on Loch Lomond, they took possession of an island in it, from whence they sent parties over the neighbouring countries to levy contributions, and extort such penalties as they judged proper. But serious apprehensions being entertained of their disposition for mischief, great crowds of military, lairds and their tenantry, assembled, and they were dislodged, and forced to join a camp of Highlanders from other quarters in Strathfillan, but not till after several struggles with the king's troops, different detachments of which they defeated.

The progress of the earl of Mar with his army of disaffected Highlanders, greatly alarmed the government, and immediate orders were transmitted to Edinburgh, to secure such suspected persons as were thought inimical to the king, and among others, Rob Roy Macgregor was specially named. He, however, conducted himself with some caution on this occasion, and waited to observe the complexion of matters before he should proceed farther, as his friend Argyll had espoused the part of king George, a circumstance which greatly distressed him. In a state of considerable indecision, he proceeded to the Lowlands, and hovered about both armies prior to the battle of Sheriff-muir, without making any declaration or offer to join either; and upon that event he remained an inactive spectator. This unexpected conduct arose from two motives equally powerful,—a wish not to offend his patron, the Duke of Argyll, should he join the earl of Mar,—and that he might not act contrary to his conscience, by joining Argyll against his expatriated king.

Though the undecided issue of this trial eventually brought about the dispersion of the Highland army, the Macgregors continued together; but unwilling to return home without some substantial display of conquest, they marched to Faulkland, and garrisoned the ancient palace of that place; where, without much ceremony, they exacted rigorous fines from the king's friends. Here they remained till Argyll arrived at Perth, when they retired to their own country with the spoils they had acquired; but they continued in arms for several years thereafter, to the no small disturbance of their neighbours, in the pursuit of their usual compulsory habits.

Those daring practices seem to have been the reason why, in the subsequent act of indemnity, or free pardon, the Macgregors were excluded from mercy in these words:—"Excepting all persons of the name and clan of Macgregor, mentioned in an act of parliament made in Scotland in the first of the late king Charles I. instituted anent the clan Macgregor, whatever name he or they may have, or do assume, or commonly pass under;" and consequently our hero's name appeared attained, as "*Robert Campbell, alias Macgregor, commonly called Robert Roy.*"

In raising the tax of *black-mail*, Rob Roy was in some measure sanctioned, if not by act of parliament, at least by statutes of local institution, as he was for some time a contractor for assisting the police of different districts in collecting duties somewhat similar to the other. These affairs of police were nearly the same, though not constituted under like regulations as the succeeding *black-watch*, the origin of the now gallant 42d regiment.

Rob, who was in a great degree thus supported, openly demanded his dues, and took strong measures to enforce payment—his attack on Garden Castle was of that description. The owner was absent when Rob went to claim his right, which had long been withheld on pretences not to be allowed. He, however, took possession of the fortress; and when the owner returned he was refused admittance, until he would pay the reward of protection: but he refused; and Rob having ascended the turrets with a child from the nursery, threatened to throw it over the walls; which speedily brought the laird, at the intercession of his lady, to an agreement, when our hero restored the keys of the castle and took his leave.

Whether Rob Roy had ever paid respect to religious duties, or what might have been the extent of his creed during the more prosperous part of his life, is not certain, though he was by birth a Protestant; but he was at one period reduced so low in his finances, that he left his farm, and lived in a small hut in a distant glen. In this humble abode, whether affected by remorse for his past irregular life, or whether he had seriously come to the persuasion, that he might overcome all his errors by the interposition of Catholic priests, from their declared power of absolving all species of sin, has not been transmitted to us; but Rob had taken the resolution of becoming Roman Catholic, and he accordingly went to a Mr. Alexander Drummond, an old priest of that faith, who resided at Drummond Castle. What the nature of Rob's confessions were, or the penance which his sins required, has been concealed; but if we may judge from the account he himself gave of his interview with this ecclesiastic,—“that the old man frequently groaned, crossed himself, and exacted a heavy remuneration,”—Rob's crimes must have been of difficult expiation: “It was a convenient religion, however,” he used to say, “which for a little money could put asleep the conscience.”

But whatever amendment this apostacy from the tenets of his fathers might have effected on our hero's principles of morality, which were previously loose and unsettled, certain it is, that the restless and active temper of his mind did not long allow him to remain the quiet votary of his new faith; and a desperate foray into the north Highlands having been projected by his nephew, he was requested to take the command. Tired of inactive life, to which he had never been accustomed, and willing to do any thing to retrieve his decayed circumstances, he readily consented, and set out at the head of twenty men. It has been affirmed upon good authority, that these Macgregors, with other Highlanders, joined

some Spaniards who landed on the north west coast in 1719, and were with them at the battle of Glensheil; and that Rob and his party afterwards plundered a Spanish ship after being in possession of the English, which so enriched Rob that he again began farming, and returned to the braes of Balquhiddar.

For a considerable period after the reformation the establishment of Prebyterian clergy was very precarious, particularly in the Highland districts, where the Romish persuasion long struggled for predominance. Their settlement was often resisted by the parishioners, and their stipends being ill paid, it being customary for the lairds to fix the payment of them on their tenants, who were also made liable for any augmentation of stipend the incumbent might afterwards obtain. In the days of our hero, a Mr. Ferguson had been appointed to the parish of Balquhiddar; but his introduction was opposed by the whole body of the people, and he would not be admitted until he promised not to apply for an increase of salary. Finding, however, that he could not live on so small a sum, he subsequently took the usual legal steps for procuring an addition; but Rob Roy put a speedy termination to the business. He got hold of the minister, forced him into a public house near his own church, made him drink profusely of whisky, and caused him to sign a paper renouncing every future claim of augmentation; but he gave, at the same time, his own obligation, binding himself to send the minister, every year, half a score of sheep and a fat cow, which, during his life, was regularly done.

In his trade of dealing in cattle, Rob Roy often required to travel to different parts of the Lowlands, and the last time he visited Edinburgh was to recover a debt due him by a person who was reputed opulent, but who had taken refuge in the sanctuary of the abbey. There Rob went and saw his man; but the sacredness of the place did not protect him; and although he was a strong man, Macgregor laid hold of him, dragged him across the line of safety, and, having some officers of the law in waiting, gave over his charge to them, by which means he got his money.

The power which Macgregor possessed in his arms was very uncommon. It was scarcely possible to wrench any thing out of his hands, and he was known to seize a deer by the horns and hold him fast. His arms were long, almost to deformity, as when he stood erect he could touch his knee-pans with his fingers. Some of his neighbours might indeed say that he had long arms; but in all his private transactions he was honourable, and was much respected by the gentlemen of his country, with whom he constantly associated; and though it may appear that he did not, in his partial warfare, act in conformity to the nicest principles of justice, the greater number of his errors were yet venial, and, in his own estimation, the fair and justifiable requital of injury which he or others had sustained.

With the family of Montrose he had been at enmity for more than thirty years; but he considered the hurt they had done him to be an inexpiable offence, which he never forgave: but the animosity

sity and rivalry which had existed betwixt Montrose and Argyll, was probably a strong incentive to instigate Rob to that course which he had so long pursued against the former, as there is much reason to believe that Argyll took Rob by the hand merely to make him an instrument of opposition to Montrose.

The fame of Rob Roy Macgregor had travelled far and over many countries. His achievements were every where extolled as the matchless deeds of unconquered Caledonia; and though his prowess could not be said at all times to have been displayed upon occasions strictly meritorious, yet the general tenor of his conduct was admired in his own country, as it accorded with an ancient *Gaelic* saying, which marked the well known character of the Highlander, that *he would not turn his back on a friend nor an enemy*: yet he neither boasted of his strength nor his courage, and he did not look on his past exploits with the pride of a victor, but with the honest exultation of having supported the valour of his clan, and opposed the devouring tide of oppression. Steady in these principles, he never wantonly took up a quarrel; and, from a consciousness of his own powers, he was unwilling to adopt personal contention; yet he was often challenged to single combat, which he never refused; but on the last two trials he was worsted, when he threw down his sword and vowed he would never take it up again: for then he was nearly blind, and his strength had suffered the decay of years.

At length, worn out with the laborious vicissitudes of a restless life, he sunk calmly to his end, at the farm of Inverlocharigbegi among the braes of Balquhiddar, in 1740. His remains rest in the church yard of that parish, with no other monument to mark his grave than a simple stone, on which some kindred spirit has carved a sword—the appropriate emblem of the man:—

“Clan-Alpine’s omen and her aid.”

ART. X.—*The Tomb of Warren.*

THERE is a solemn, though sweet satisfaction, in contemplating the tomb of the brave. The recollection of their deeds arises to supply the ardour of curiosity, and to elevate the mind with noble sentiments. But, how many proud reflections are aroused, when we regard the turf that covers the remains of the honoured dead, martyrs to freedom’s cause?—patriots, who fell gloriously contending for whatever could bind a cause to themselves and their posterity; at the price of whose blood, our independence—all the rights, privileges, and blessings we enjoy as freemen, were greatly, though dearly won.

Their merit survives the frail memorials of the tomb. Their fame is enshrined in the memory of their countrymen. Distant generations shall recount the gallant resistance of a handful of undisciplined volunteers, to the tried veterans who disputed the victory of that day, when the triumph of native valour—the spontaneous burst of patriotic enthusiasm, was memorably asserted over mercenary regulars.

Foremost in this great struggle was JOSEPH WARREN, fitted alike for counsel and for action, prompt, intuitive, ardent, of bold decision, and unquenchable zeal. Whatever he determined, and he was eminently qualified to determine soundly, he was strenuous to urge and indefatigable to execute—qualities particularly serviceable at a period when even the prudent might waver and the cautious be afraid. But Warren was fearless, when the public interest, and his own glory involved, were in question.

It is for great minds to appreciate that devotion which rises with the occasion, buoyant with its own elasticity, which springs at the call of duty—sees no danger too difficult to surmount—no obstacle but to be overcome. Before it, impediments recede, and the magnitude of opposition serves but to excite higher energies to meet it.

Such characters, nurtured in revolutions, appear to be the immediate instruments in the hands of providence, of great designs. They occur rarely in an age, as if their virtues were to be the more impressive for this rarity. But for their magnanimous resolves, their heroic and inspiring examples, their directing guides, what would have been the current of many of the happiest events that now adorn the calendar of human affairs? Without them, how precarious the tenure of liberty with life, of national existence, and political franchise?

In the annals of our country, the name of Warren is enumerated as the first victim of rank who fell in the arduous struggle with Great Britain. This distinguished person was born at Roxbury, near Boston, in 1740. He was entered of Harvard college, Cambridge, and graduated in 1759. Pursuing the study of medicine with great success, he attracted early notice, and in a few years rose to eminence in his profession as one of the ablest physicians in Boston. But other, and more pressing duties, in his mind, absorbed his interests, and urged him to make great sacrifices for his country's weal. His comprehensive intellect could not fail to perceive, in the distance, that a combination of causes was operating fast to accelerate a mighty change in the relations between Great Britain and his country. The cloud then lowering over the political horizon, portended the coming storm. He foresaw that it would burst on that portion of the state which seemed peculiarly to have an imperious claim upon his talents and his services. To be wanting on such an occasion to a full sense of duty, was reserved for souls less daring, who could purchase security at whatever price. In the estimation of Warren, a sacrifice of the emoluments of a lucrative profession was light in the comparison; setting at nought, then, the considerations that engross ordinary minds, he stepped boldly forward, the advocate of a vigorous resistance, when he saw that, between the extremes of power on the one hand, and unqualified emancipation on the other, there is no safe interval.

His eloquence as a speaker, and his talents as a writer, were conspicuous on all occasions, from the year in which the stamp act was passed, to the commencement of hostilities. He predicted, and with

an energy that appalled enemies while it animated friends, he enforced, with irrefragable ability, the great truth—that America was competent to withstand any force that could be sent against her; for that while he spoke, one hundred thousand men of New England alone, descendants of the puritans in the Charles's and James's days, were ready—men who had not lost the spirit of Englishmen under the English commonwealth.

He continued, from the year 1768, a principal member of a secret committee in Boston, which had great influence on the concerns of the country. At their meetings, plans of defence and preparation were agitated and matured, and in all these delicate proceedings, his boldness, his decision, and zeal were governed by the circumspection and wisdom with which they were happily tempered. After the destruction of the tea, and the consequent defeat of that attempt at foreign impost, the proceedings of this committee were no longer kept concealed. Warren was the avowed champion of decisive measures. His unhesitating espousal of the cause of liberty, pointed him out a leader in those times, and he was twice chosen the public orator of the town on the anniversaries of the massacre,* when he delivered orations breathing all the energy of a lofty mind.

On the evening before the battle of Lexington, he obtained, through his usual indefatigable industry, early information of the intended expedition against Concord, and at ten o'clock at night despatched an express to Messrs. Hancock and Adams, who were at Lexington, to warn them of their danger. He himself followed on the next day, hovered about the enemy, and was very active during the engagement of the memorable 19th of April. It is said, in general Heath's memoirs, that a ball took off part of his ear-lock. After the departure of John Hancock to the general congress, he was chosen president of the Massachusetts congress in his place, and by his extensive influence, was of signal benefit in preserving order among the troops then assembled at Cambridge, which, in the confused state of the army, was essentially important. Four days previously to the battle of Bunker's or more properly Breed's Hill, he received his commission of major general in the armies of the general congress, then held at Philadelphia.

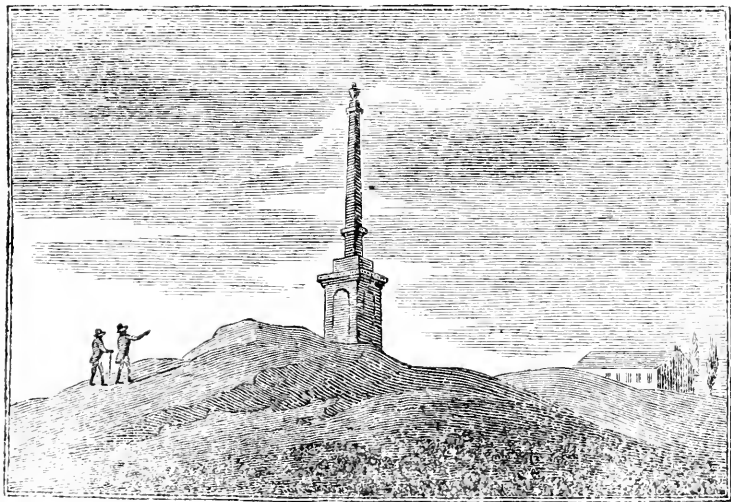
In the morning of that eventful day the 17th of June, 1775, he repaired from head-quarters at Cambridge to Breed's Hill, in order to inspect the intrenchments and give directions personally, respecting the completion of the works. His ardor did not allow him to remain an inactive spectator, but, with a view to encourage the men, he took his station within the lines, and assisted in their defence. He was in the hottest of the action, and towards the close of it, while in the trenches, received the fatal shot that prematurely terminated his valuable life, in the thirty-fifth year of his age. Thus was cut off in the flower of his age, this gallant hero, loved, lamented, the theme of universal regret—a loss, at any time

* He published one oration in 1772, and another in 1775, commemorative of the 5th of March, 1770.

deeply, but then, most poignantly felt. As Leonidas he was brave; as Leonidas he fell, with truly Spartan spirit, waging an unequal contest for the liberties of his country. But, though he did not outlive the glories of that great occasion, he had lived long enough for fame. It needed no other herald of his actions than the simple testimony of the historian, that Warren fell, foremost in the ranks of that war which he had justified by his argument, supported by his energy, and signalized by his prowess.

Dulce, et decorum est, pro patria mori.

The monument erected by his fellow citizens, on the spot where he poured out his latest breath, commemorates at once his achievement and a people's gratitude. The representation of it here given was taken on Breed's Hill, and may be depended upon for its accuracy.



Though untimely was his fall, and though a cloud of sorrow overspread every countenance at the recital of his fate, yet, if the love of fame be the noblest passion of the human mind, and human nature pant for distinction in the martial field, perhaps there never was a moment of more unfading glory, offered to the wishes of the brave, than that which marked the exit of this heroic officer. Still, who will not lament that he incautiously courted the post of danger, while more important occasions required a regard to personal safety?

He was endowed with a clear and vigorous understanding, a disposition humane and generous—qualities which, graced by manners affable and engaging, rendered him the idol of the army and of his friends. His powers of speech and reasoning commanded respect, and gained him influence in the Massachusetts congress, whose electing voice, together with his native intrepidity, and sanguine zeal for the cause he had embraced, induced him to enter

into the military line. His professional as well as political abilities were of the highest order. Though energetic, he was prudent and judicious in debate, generous, and, to his honour be it said, liberal towards those who entertained opposite sentiments respecting the controversy in which he was engaged—an example worthy of serious remembrance and imitation.

To the most undaunted resolution in the field, he united the softer virtues of domestic life—and embellished the wisdom of a profound statesman with the eloquence of an accomplished orator.

He had been an active volunteer in several skirmishes which had occurred since the commencement of hostilities, in all of which he gave strong presages of capacity and distinction in the profession of arms. But the fond hopes of his country were to be closed in death, not, however, until he had sealed with his blood the charter of our liberties, not until he had secured that permanence of glory with which we encircle the memory, whilst we cherish the name, of WARREN.

Since our former notice of the Battle of Bunker's Hill, we have received a variety of documents, proceeding from the testimony of survivors who were in a situation, on that day, to enable them to judge of all the events connected with it; and, to the eminent character who collected them, we beg to offer our warmest acknowledgments.

The general accuracy of the plan of operations near Bunker's Hill, given in our last number, has met the approbation of his excellency John Brooks, governor of Massachusetts, major general Dearborn, Dr. A. Dexter, and the Hon. William Prescott, of Boston, son of the gallant colonel Prescott, of whom honourable mention is made in accounts of this battle; the Hon. James Winthrop, of Cambridge, and John Kettell, esq. Deacon Thomas Miller, and Dr. Bartlett, of Charlestown, who have expressed concurring opinions in favour of it, as being a faithful outline. Two doubts only were suggested.

1st. As to the position of the *abbatis* or *hay-fence*, which was hastily got up just before the action, and

2d. As to the pieces of cannon represented behind it, and which are mentioned in the references.

General Dearborn thinks that the rail-fence was farther in advance towards Breed's hill than is represented on the plan, and that it was nearly in a line with the *breast-work*. Dr. Dexter is of the same opinion. So also is Deacon Miller. Upon describing the present known objects which the line of fence would pass over, it was considered by Dr. Bartlett, to whom the ground is familiar, that the description, in fact, supported the plan. Judge Winthrop is satisfied that the position of the fence on the plan is correct. The account which follows was kindly committed to paper by himself.

"As far as I can recollect, I believe the plan to be generally correct. The railed fence was, I think, as far as a quarter of a mile from the curtain belonging to the redoubt. There was room for a body of troops to enter that way, which was one circumstance that discomfited our men. There was no such grove as is represented on the plan. There were two or three trees near the fences, and, I believe, not more than that number. I remember two field pieces at the rail fence which covered our left. When I first got there, generals Warren and Putnam were standing by the pieces and consulting together. Very few men were at that part of the lines. I went forward to the redoubt, and tarried there a little while. Mr. James Swan and myself were in company. Finding that a column of the enemy were advancing toward our left, and not far from Mystic river, we pointed them out to the people without the redoubt, and proposed that some measure should be taken to man the fence, which, when we passed, we had considered as slightly guarded. We two, in the style of the times, were appointed a committee for that purpose. We went directly to the rail fence, and found a body of men had arrived since we had left it. Possibly three hundred would not be an estimate far from the truth. As soon as we had got to the middle of the line, the firing commenced from the redoubt and continued through our left. The field pieces stood there, and nobody appeared to have the care of them. After an obstinate dispute, our people were driven from the redoubt, and the retreat was rapid from our whole line. I saw one or two young men, in uniform, try to muster a party to bring off the field pieces, but they could not succeed.

"In coming down Bunker's Hill, at the place where the British built their fort, I met a regiment going up, and joined company, still in hopes of repelling the invaders. I have since learned that it was Col. Gardner's regiment. He being badly wounded was removed, and his regiment was not deployed.

"When the firing commenced from the redoubt, the smoke rose from the lower part of the street. A man near me pointed to it as 'the smoke from the guns.' This shows that the fire was in a line with the redoubt and the middle of the rail fence. By laying a ruler from the middle of the rail fence, as marked upon the plan, and over that side of the fort next the main street, it will cross the northern side of the square where the court-house stood. After the destruction of the town, the places of the court-house and meeting-house were cleared of the ruins to form the present square. An irregular mass of buildings was also removed in front of the present hotel, and extended that corner of the square to its present magnitude. As well as I can conclude from this statement, I am inclined to believe the plan nearly correct.

JAMES WINTHROP."

General Dearborn does not recollect seeing any cannon at the place indicated on the plan; and is confident there were none. Deacon Miller is of the same opinion. Governor Brooks thinks differently, and Judge Winthrop's letter distinctly affirms that two field pieces were on that part of the ground. It appears, however, from the whole of the evidence, that little or no use was made of them.

Some of the witnesses expressed an opinion, that there was no such break between the breast-work and the hay-fence, as is re-

presented on the plan; but there was a line of that sort of imperfect defence extending from the breast-work to the shore. It is so represented in the plan of the action in Stedman's History of the American War (*English edition, quarto*). A line drawn on Lieut. De Berniere's plan from the lower end of the breast-work to the *hay-fence*, will correspond, as to the lines of defence, with Stedman's plan. It appears that the British grenadiers received a very heavy fire from the place marked P, and, it is not probable that the troops from whom that fire proceeded were altogether unprotected. Indeed there are three angular figures represented at that place in De Berniere's plan, which are not very intelligible, and were probably meant to indicate unfinished intrenchments, or some other description of defence. Judge Winthrop's letter, however, mentions the accuracy of the plan in this particular also.

Particulars respecting the action, collected from the gentlemen consulted, as above mentioned.—The men who first went on the hill in the evening of the 16th, and constructed the works, were in number about one thousand, detachments principally of Prescott's, Bridge's, and Fry's regiments. Colonel Prescott had the command. Three companies of Bridge's regiment were not included in the order. Captain Brooks (now governor Brooks) commanded one of these companies. He obtained colonel Bridge's consent to accompany him, and was on the ground the whole night, as a volunteer, without his company. Early in the morning of the 17th a man was killed at the redoubt by a fire from one of the ships in Charles's river. A council of war was held in the redoubt, which captain Brooks attended. There was some diversity of opinion as to the course to be pursued, and what message should be sent to the commander in chief at Cambridge, general Ward. Some one urged that they ought to be relieved, after the fatigues of the night, and that the works required to be manned with fresh troops to withstand the expected attack. To this proposal colonel Prescott was decidedly opposed. "No," said he, "the men who erected the works, will defend them." It was determined to request the other three companies of Bridge's regiment to be sent as a reinforcement. Captain Brooks was despatched to Cambridge in performance of this duty,—a service not a little hazardous, on account of an incessant fire maintained by the ships and gun-boats across Charlestown neck, which it was necessary to pass. General Ward objected to weaken his force by detaching more troops from Cambridge. It could not be done, in his opinion, without indiscreet and unjustifiable risk of that important post. The whole plan of the enemy could not be conjectured. A diversion might be attempted in aid of the main operation, and a general attack might be facilitated by abstracting any larger portion of the means of defence. He thought also that a sufficient number was already on the field. Whilst deliberating on this subject, Richard Devens, esq. of Charlestown, had an interview with the general, in the course of which he vehemently remonstrated against what he understood to be the determination. Mr. Devens was one of the

committee of safety, and, from his station **and** character, his opinion, so decidedly expressed, had a preponderating influence. The companies were ordered to proceed.

General Dearborn was captain of a company in colonel Stark's regiment. That regiment, and colonel Reed's, both from New-Hampshire, went on the ground on the 17th, just as the British troops were advancing from their first position. He was at the hay-fence on the American left. He does not know by whom, or when it was constructed. There were but few men at that post when it was occupied by the New Hampshire troops. He describes the repeated repulses of the light infantry and grenadiers in that part of the line, as in all the published accounts. He recognized among the British troops, the twenty-third or Welsh fusileers, so distinguished at the battle of Minden. These he knew by their uniform, having particularly noticed them on parade at Boston in 1774. General D. when a prisoner at Quebec in 1776, conversed with an officer of the British 47th regiment, who confirmed Stedman's account of the blunder in sending shot from Boston during the action, of dimensions larger than the calibre of the field pieces. The general conceives that a diversion might, and ought to have been made, by the officer in command on Bunker's hill, who had troops sufficient for the purpose, and that it would have had the good effect of relieving, in some degree, the pressure on those in the lines—an opinion corroborated by that of colonel Prescott in his remarks upon this subject to several of his friends.

Judge Winthrop entered the field on that memorable day, attached to no military corps. He was young and ardent in the interesting cause, and yielded to feelings which impelled him to be active on the occasion. (See his observations.)

Dr. Dexter was a spectator of the battle from the Malden side of Mystic river. His situation was particularly favourable to a distinct view of what took place on the British right wing. He saw the light infantry and grenadiers retreat twice to the shore. Upon their second repulse, before they advanced again, the men pulled off their coats, and marched up to the final attack stripped of that garment. It was at this period, probably, that they laid down part of the load with which, Stedman says, they were injudiciously encumbered—knapsacks, with three days provisions!

John Kettell, esq. was a soldier in captain Perkins's company of colonel Little's regiment, from the county of Essex. The whole regiment contained about eight hundred men. This regiment marched to the hill just before the action commenced. He at first went into the redoubt, which was full of men, and they were not wanted at that place; they then repaired to the breast-work, and hay-fence, taking post as they were wanted.

Deacon T. Miller was an ensign in captain Harris's company, colonel Gardner's regiment. The division of the regiment ordered to the ground, amounted to about three hundred men. He went on just at the commencement of the action, and was at the hay-

fence, but mentions no particulars of any interest not already well known and published.

Remarks.—The accounts given of Bunker's hill battle immediately after it took place, are singularly meagre and imperfect. In Ede's Gazette, of Monday the 17th, the subject is disposed of in one short paragraph, and so defective was the state of information at Watertown, where the gazette was published, that the editor speaks of the engagement as continuing when the paper was put to press, at nine o'clock on Monday morning. This can but refer to the shots occasionally exchanged between the two parties, the British, occupying Bunker's hill, and the Americans, posted on Prospect hill.

In "*Almon's Remembrancer*," is an article of intelligence from the New York Gazette of June 26, detailing accounts respecting the action brought by express to that city. It states the number of British troops engaged at about three thousand, the Americans fifteen hundred. The defence of posts and rails is there said to have been performed by captain Knowlton, with four hundred of the Connecticut forces. This corresponds with an account now given by Mr. Adams, who lives in that part of Charlestown without the Neck, and at whose house Knowlton's company was quartered. He says, the company went on the hill in the evening of the 17th, by order of general Putnam. There were between eighty and ninety men in the company. After their return, they mentioned to Mr. Adams, among other matters, the pulling up a string of fence, carrying it to other fences, filling the interval with newly mown grass, and fighting, most of them, behind this slender protection. Captain Knowlton and his lieutenant Keyes were experienced officers, having served in the French war which closed with the peace of 1763. The loss in that company was three killed, and the same number wounded.

The following article, copied from a Providence newspaper, of July 15, though it may not be satisfactory as respects the number of killed and wounded, yet serves to show the several regiments to which the troops engaged belonged.

<i>Regiments.</i>		<i>Killed & Missing.</i>				<i>Wounded.</i>
<i>New Hampshire</i> —Col. Stark's } Read's }		-	15	-	-	45
Gen. Ward's		-	1	-	-	6
<i>Massachusetts</i> —Col. Scammon's		-	0	-	-	2
Bridge's		-	15	-	-	29
Gerrish's		-	3	-	-	2
Prescott's		-	42	-	-	28
Whitcomb's		-	5	-	-	8
Fry's		-	15	-	-	31
Brewer's		-	7	-	-	11
Nixon's		-	3	-	-	10
Carried up,			106			172

	Brought up,	106		172
<i>Massachusetts</i> —Col. Little's	-	7	-	23
Woodbridge's	-	1	-	5
Gardner's	-	6	-	7
Doolittle's	-	0	-	9
Gridley's	-	0	-	4
<i>Connecticut</i> —Gen. Putnam's	}	15	-	30
Capt. Coit's comp.				
Chester's				
		135		250
About 30 of the missing returned,				30
				220
				135

Total of killed, wounded, and missing, 355

By this account it appears, that the three Massachusetts regiments which first occupied the hill, and were principally in the re-doubt, suffered the most. The New Hampshire forces are next to them in amount of loss. Gridley was of the artillery. His men, it is believed, were not on the hill, but engaged on the shore without the neck, against the gun-boats.

Various estimates have been made, and opinions pronounced, as to the number of men engaged in this important action. Judge Marshall* states the British force at about three thousand men, composing the flower of the army.† The American force, he observes, was stated through the country at fifteen hundred; by some it has been supposed to be considerably larger. They who embrace a more extended calculation, probably include the troops outside the Neck, who bore no part in the action, and ought not to be considered as a portion of the force engaged.

Stedman's account of the employment of the field pieces on the British side, is very different from De Berniere's, for he represents them as considerably farther in advance, and is silent respecting their being stopped by a marsh. From the position of the artillery, as designated by Stedman, it would require but little progress forward to bring the pieces in a line with the breast work; and this opera-

* Vide life of Washington by chief justice Marshall.

† Our readers are requested to supply an omission in the account given in our last number of the description of British troops first landed at Moreton's point for the attack of the works. It is said, page 151, that the force landed there, consisted of 10 companies of light infantry, 10 companies of grenadiers, and a proportion of field artillery. Mention should have been made of the 4 battalions, in addition to those companies, that accompanied them. viz. the 5th, 38th, 42d, and 52d, all which appear on the plan of De Berniere. The light infantry and grenadiers consisted of the flank companies detached from different regiments in garrison at Boston. The omission originated in judge Marshall's life of Washington; in Holme's annals the same narrative is adopted without alteration. In a future edition of these works, our amendment will no doubt be attended to, as it is derived from the official accounts of general Gage, the British commander in chief, printed herewith.

tion would accord with the account given by the Massachusetts congress, that "the enemy brought some cannon to bear in such a manner as to rake the inside of the breast-work from one end of it to the other."

The breast-work was first forced by the grenadiers and regiments opposed to it, according to Stedman's account. It was at this place, probably, that one of captain Knowlton's company acquired a trophy—the musket of one of the grenadiers, whom he killed or disabled in the act of mounting the intrenchment, and brought it from the field to his quarters at Mr. Adams's house. The name of this man was *Ammiden*.

[As the official accounts of the action, given on both sides, do not appear in any of our histories, and are not readily accessible to the general reader, we have been induced to republish them from Almon's Remembrancer, a work now scarce, yet abounding with the most interesting documents relative to American affairs.]

Copy of a letter from the hon. lieutenant general Gage, governor, and commander in chief of his Britannic majesty's forces in Boston, to the earl of Dartmouth, secretary of state, dated Boston, June 25th, 1775.

MY LORD,—I am to acquaint your lordship of an action that happened on the 17th inst. between his majesty's troops and a large body of the rebel forces.

An alarm was given at break of day, on the 17th inst. by a firing from the *Lively** ship of war; and advice was soon afterwards received that the rebels had broke ground, and were raising a battery on the heights of the peninsula of Charlestown, against the town of Boston. They were plainly seen at work, and, in a few hours, a battery of six guns played upon their works. Preparations were instantly made for landing a body of men to drive them off; and ten companies of the grenadiers, ten of light infantry, with the 5th, 38th, 43d and 52d battalions, with a proportion of field artillery, under the command of major general Howe, and brigadier general Pigot, were embarked with great expedition, and landed on the peninsula without opposition, under the protection of some ships of war, armed vessels, and boats, by whose fire the rebels were kept within their works.

The troops formed as soon as landed; the light infantry posted on the right, and the grenadiers upon their left. The 5th, and 38th battalions drew up in the rear of those corps, and the 43d and 52 battalions made a third line. The rebels upon the heights were perceived to be in great force, and strongly posted. A redoubt thrown up on the 16th, at night, with other works, full of men, defended with cannon, and a large body posted in the houses in Charlestown, covered their right flank; and their center and left were covered by a breast-work, part of it cannon-proof, which reached from the left of the redoubt to the Mystick or Medford river.

* It is amusing, now, to observe the term *rebels*, applied to our brave countrymen; but, it is true that, so nearly allied are the greatest of political virtues and crimes, that, had the gallant *Warren* been taken prisoner, and the cause which he espoused, have been abandoned after the capture of Charlestown, he would in all probability, have closed that life ignominiously on a scaffold, which he so nobly devoted to the dearest interests and welfare of his country. Success, in all such cases is the only criterion of merit; and the same zeal, the same intrepidity that now ranks him with Epaminondas and Kosciusko, would, in a different issue, have subjected this heroic character to the fate of a felon.

This appearance of the rebels' strength, and the large columns seen pouring in to their assistance, occasioned an application for the troops to be reinforced with some companies of light infantry and grenadiers; the 47th battalion, and the 1st battalion of marines; the whole when in conjunction, making a body of something above 2000 men. These troops advanced, formed in two lines, and the attack began by a sharp cannonade from the field pieces and the howitzers, the lines advancing slowly, and frequently halting to give time for the artillery to fire. The light infantry was directed to force the left point of the breast-work, to take the rebel line in flank, and the grenadiers to attack in front, supported by the 5th and 52d battalions. These orders were executed with perseverance, under a heavy fire from the vast numbers of the rebels; and notwithstanding various impediments before the troops could reach the works, and though the left, under brigadier general Pigot, was engaged also with the rebels at Charlestown, which, at a critical moment, was set on fire, the brigadier pursued his point, and carried the redoubt.

The rebels were then forced from other strong holds, and pursued till they were driven clear off the peninsula, leaving five pieces of cannon behind them.

The loss the rebels sustained must have been considerable, from the great numbers they carried off during the time of action, and buried in holes, since discovered; exclusive of what they suffered by the shipping and boats; near one hundred were buried the day after, and thirty found wounded, in the field, three of which are since dead.

I inclose your lordship a return of the killed and wounded of his majesty's troops.

This action has shewn the superiority of the king's troops, who, under every disadvantage, attacked and defeated above three times their own number, strongly posted and covered by breast-works.

The conduct of major general Howe was conspicuous on this occasion, and his example inspirited the troops, in which major general Clinton assisted, who followed the reinforcement. And in justice to brigadier general Pigot, I am to add, that the success of the day must, in great measure, be attributed to his firmness and gallantry.

Lieutenant colonels Nesbitt, Abercrombie, and Clarke; Majors Butler, Williams, Bruce, Spendlove, Smelt, Mitchell, Pitcairn, and Short, exerted themselves remarkably; and the valour of the British officers and soldiers in general, was at no time more conspicuous than in this action.

I have the honour to be, &c.

THOMAS GAGE.

Return of the total loss in officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates, killed and wounded, of his majesty's troops, at the attack of the redoubts and entrenchments on the heights of Charlestown, 17th June, 1775.

1 Lieutenant colonel, 2 majors, 7 captains, 9 lieutenants, 15 serjeants, 1 drummer, 191 rank and file, killed. 3 Majors, 27 captains, 32 lieutenants, 8 ensigns, 40 serjeants, 12 drummers, 700 rank and file, wounded.

The congress of Massachusetts published the following account of the action:—

In obedience to the order of the general congress, this committee have inquired into the premises, and, upon the best information obtained, find,

that the commanders of the New England army had, about the 14th ult., received advice that general Gage had issued orders for a party of the troops under his command to post themselves on Bunker's Hill, a promontory just at the entrance of the peninsula at Charlestown, which orders were soon to be executed; upon which it was determined, with the advice of this committee, to send a party, who might erect some fortifications upon the said hill, and defeat the design of our enemies. Accordingly, on the 16th ult., orders were issued that a detachment of one thousand men should that evening march to Charlestown, and intrench upon that hill. Just before nine o'clock they left Cambridge, and proceeded to Breed's Hill, situated on the further part of the peninsula, next to Boston, (for by some mistake this hill was marked out for the intrenchment instead of the other). Many things being necessary to be done preparatory to the intrenchments being thrown up, which could not be done before, lest the enemy should discover and defeat the design, it was nearly twelve o'clock before the works were entered upon. They were then carried on with the utmost diligence and alacrity; so that by the dawn of day they had thrown up a small redoubt about eight rods square. At this time a heavy fire began from the enemy's ships, a number of floating batteries, and from a fortification of the enemy's upon Copp's Hill, in Boston, directly opposite our little redoubt. An incessant shower of shot and bombs was rained by these upon our works. The Americans continued to labour indefatigably till they had thrown up a small breast-work, extending from the east side of the redoubt to the bottom of the hill, but were prevented completing it by the intolerable fire of the enemy.

Between twelve and one o'clock a number of boats and barges, filled with the regular troops from Boston, were observed approaching towards Charlestown; these troops landed at a place called Moreton's Point, situated a little to the eastward of our works. This brigade formed upon their landing, and stood thus formed till a second detachment arrived from Boston to join them; having sent out large flank guards, they began a very slow march towards our lines. At this instant, smoke and flames were seen to arise from the town of Charlestown, which had been set on fire by the enemy, that the smoke might cover their attack upon our lines, and perhaps with a design to rout or destroy one or two of our regiments who had been posted in that town. If either of these was their design, they were disappointed; for the wind shifting on a sudden, carried the smoke another way, and the regiments were already removed. Our troops, within their intrenchments, impatiently awaited the attack of the enemy, and reserved their fire till they came within ten or twelve rods, and then began a furious discharge of small arms. This fire arrested the enemy, which they for some time returned, without advancing a step, and then retreated in disorder and with great precipitation to the place of landing, and some of them sought refuge even within their boats. Here the officers were observed by the spectators on the opposite shore, to run down to them, using the most passionate gestures, and pushing the men forward with their swords. At length they were rallied, and marched up, with apparent reluctance, towards the intrenchments; the Americans again reserved their fire until the enemy came within five or six rods, and a second time put the regulars to flight, who ran in great confusion towards their boats. Similar and superior exertions were now necessarily made by the officers, which, notwithstanding the men discovered an almost insuperable reluctance to *fighting in this cause*, were again successful. They formed once

more, and having brought some cannon to bear in such a manner as to rake the inside of the breast-work from one end of it to the other, our troops retreated within their little fort. The ministerial army now made a decisive effort. The fire from the ships and batteries, as well as from the cannon in the front of their army, was redoubled. The officers in the rear of their army were observed to goad forward the men with renewed exertions, and they attacked the redoubt on three sides at once. The breast-work on the outside of the fort was abandoned; our ammunition was expended, and but few of our troops had bayonets to affix to their muskets. Can it then be wondered that the word was given by the commander of the party to retreat? but this he delayed till the redoubt was half filled with regulars, and our troops had kept the enemy at bay some time, confronting them with the butt end of their muskets. The retreat of this little handful of brave men would have been effectually cut off, had it not happened that the flanking party of the enemy, which was to have come upon the back of the redoubt, was checked by a party of our men, who fought with the utmost bravery, and kept them from advancing farther than the beach; the engagement of these two parties was kept up with the utmost vigour; and it must be acknowledged that this party of the ministerial troops evinced a courage worthy of a better cause: all their efforts however were insufficient to compel their equally gallant opponents to retreat, till their main body had left the hill; perceiving this was done, they then gave ground, but with more regularity than could be expected of troops who had no longer been under discipline, and many of whom never before saw an engagement.

In this retreat the Americans had to pass over the neck which joins the peninsula of Charlestown to the main land. This neck was commanded by the Glasgow man of war, and two floating batteries, placed in such a manner as that their shot raked every part of it. The incessant fire kept up across this neck had, from the beginning of the engagement, prevented any considerable reinforcements from getting to our troops on the hill, and it was feared it would cut off their retreat, but they retired over it with little or no loss.

With a ridiculous parade of triumph, the ministerial generals again took possession of the hill which had served them as a retreat in flight from the battle of Concord. It was expected that they would prosecute the supposed advantage they had gained, by marching immediately to Cambridge, which was distant but two miles, and which was not then in a state of defence. This they failed to do. The wonder excited by such conduct soon ceased, when, by the best accounts from Boston, we are told, that of 3000 men who marched out upon this expedition, no less than 1500 (ninety-two of whom were commissioned officers) were killed or wounded; and about 1200 of them either killed or mortally wounded. Such a slaughter was perhaps never before made upon British troops in the space of about an hour, during which the heat of the engagement lasted, by about 1500 men, which were the most that were at any time engaged on the American side.

The loss of the New England army amounted, according to an exact return, to 145 killed and missing, and 304 wounded: thirty of the first were wounded and taken prisoners by the enemy. Among the dead was major general JOSEPH WARREN, *a man whose memory will be endeared to his countrymen, and to the worthy in every part and age of the world, so long as virtue and valour shall be esteemed among mankind.* The heroic colonel Gardner, of Cambridge, has since died of his wounds; and the brave lieutenant colonel Parker, of Chelmsford, who was wounded

and taken prisoner, perished in Boston gaol. These three, with major Moore, and major M'Clary,* who nobly struggled in the cause of their country, were the only officers of distinction which we lost. Some officers of great worth, though inferior in rank, were killed, whom we deeply lament. But the officers and soldiers in general, who were wounded, are in a fair way of recovery. The town of Charlestown, the buildings of which were large and elegant, and which contained effects belonging to the unhappy sufferers in Boston, to a very great amount, was entirely destroyed, and its chimnies and cellars now present a prospect to the Americans, exciting an indignation in their bosoms, which nothing can appease but the sacrifice of those miscreants who have introduced horror, desolation, and havoc into these once happy abodes of liberty, peace, and plenty.

We wish for no farther effusion of blood, if the freedom and peace of America can be secured without it; but if it must be otherwise, we are determined to struggle. We disdain life without liberty.

Oh Britons! be wise for yourselves before it is too late; and secure a friendly intercourse with the American colonies; disarm your ministerial assassins; put an end to this unnatural war, and suffer not any rapacious despots to amuse you with the unprofitable ideas of your *right to tax and officer the colonies*, till the most profitable and advantageous trade you have is sacrificed. Be wise for yourselves, and the Americans will contribute to and rejoice in your prosperity. J. PALMER, *per order*.

[The following extract of a letter from Genl. Burgoyne, describing the battle of Bunker Hill, was originally published in a London Newspaper in September 1775. It was republished in Hall's New England Chronicle, printed at Cambridge November 24, 1775, and soon afterwards in Ede's Boston Gazette, then printed at Watertown in Massachusetts. The authenticity of the letter has never been questioned. It is repeatedly quoted in the *British military library*, a work of considerable reputation, and is called, General Burgoyne's letter to the Earl of Derby. In the "military memoirs" of General Burgoyne, (2d volume of the military library) we are told that he was a natural son of Edward Stanley, Earl of Derby, the Nobleman to whom the following letter was addressed.]

Extract of a letter from General Burgoyne to a noble Lord, dated Boston June 25, (1775.)

Boston is a peninsula, joined to the main land only by a narrow neck, which, on the first troubles, General Gage fortified. Arms of the sea, and the harbour surround the rest. On the other side one of these arms, to the north, is Charlestown, or rather was, for it is now rubbish, and over it a large hill which is also (like Boston) a peninsula. To the south of the town, is a still larger scope of ground, containing three hills, joining also to the main by a tongue of land, and called Dorchester Neck. The heights above described, both north and south (in the soldier's phrase) command the town, that is give an opportunity of erecting batteries above any that you can make against them, and consequently much more advantageous. It was absolutely necessary we should make ourselves masters of these heights, and we proposed to begin with Dorchester; because from the particular situation of batteries and shipping (too long to describe and unintelligible to you if I did) it would evidently be effected without any considerable loss; every thing was accordingly disposed. My two colleagues and myself (who by the bye have never differed in one jot of military sentiment) had, in concert with

* This brave officer was killed by a cannon-ball on the retreat, whilst crossing Charlestown Neck. He was generally esteemed, and his loss much regretted.

Gen. Gage, formed the plan. Howe was to land the *transports** on the point, Clinton in the centre, and I was to cannonade from the causeway or the neck, each to take advantage of circumstances. The operations must have been very easy; this was to have been executed on the 18th. On the 17th, at dawn of day, we found the enemy had pushed intrenchments with great diligence, during the night, on the heights of Charlestown, and we evidently saw that every hour gave fresh strength; it therefore became necessary to alter our plan, and attack on that side. Howe, as second in command, was detached with about two thousand men, and landed on the outward side of the peninsula, covered by shipping, without opposition; he was to advance thence up the hill, which was over Charlestown, where the strength of the enemy lay; he had under him Brigadier Gen. Pigot; Clinton and myself took our stand (for we had not any fixed post) in a large battery, directly opposite to Charlestown, and commanding it, and also reaching the heights above it, and thereby facilitating Howe's attack. Howe's disposition was exceeding soldier like; in my opinion it was perfect.† As his first army advanced up the hill, they met with a thousand impediments from strong fences, and were much exposed. They were also exceedingly hurt by musquetry, from Charlestown, though Clinton and I did not perceive it, till Howe sent us word by a boat, and desired us to set fire to the town, which was immediately done. We threw a parcel of shells and the whole was instantly in flames. Our battery afterwards kept up an incessant fire on the heights; it was seconded by a number of frigates, floating batteries and one ship of the line; and now ensued one of the greatest scenes of war that can be conceived. If we look to the heights, Howe's corps ascending the hill, in the face of intrenchments, and on a very disadvantageous ground, was much engaged; to the left the enemy pouring in fresh troops, by thousands, over the land; in the arm of the sea our ships and floating batteries cannonading them; straight before us, a large and noble town in one great blaze, the church steeples being of timber were great pyramids of fire above the rest; behind us the church steeples and heights of our own camp covered with spectators of the rest of our army which was [not] engaged; the hills round the country covered with spectators; the enemy all in anxious suspense, the roar of cannon, mortars and musquetry, the crush of churches, ships upon the stocks and whole streets falling together in ruins to fill the ear; the storm of the redoubts, with the objects above described to fill the eye, and the reflection that perhaps a defeat was a final loss to [of] the British empire in America to fill the mind, made the whole a picture and a complication

* Probably *troops*, in the original, or perhaps "from the transports" would be the correct reading, as part of the reinforcement which arrived at Boston, from England, with Generals Howe, Burgoyne and Clinton were not landed until the day of Bunker Hill battle.

† In the opinion of many living witnesses, General Howe was chargeable with a capital error in landing and attacking as he did. It might originate from too great a confidence in the forces he commanded, and in too contemptuous an opinion of the enemy he had to encounter. He certainly might have landed in rear of the Americans, on the narrowest part of Charlestown neck, under the fire of the floating batteries and ships of war. Here he might have stationed and fortified his army, and kept up an open communication with Boston by water, which he would have commanded through the navy on each side of the peninsula. Had he adopted this plan of operations, the Americans, on observing its tendency, must have made a rapid retreat from Breed's Hill, to prevent being inclosed and cut off: many military men incline to this opinion, which coincides with that expressed by Stedman.

of horror and importance beyond any thing that ever fell to my lot to be witness to.

I much lament Tom's* absence; it was a sight for a young soldier that the longest service may not furnish again, and had he been with me, he would likewise have been out of danger, for, except two cannon-balls that went an hundred yards over our heads, we were not in any part of the direction of the enemy's shot. A moment of the day was critical. Howe's left were staggered; two battalions had been sent to reinforce them. but we perceived them on the beach seemingly in embarrassment what way to march. Clinton, then next for business, took the part, without waiting for orders, to throw himself into a boat to head them; he arrived in time to be of service; the day ended with glory, and the success was most important, considering the ascendancy it gave the regular troops; but the loss was uncommon in officers, for the numbers engaged

Howe was untouched, but his aid-de-camp, Sherwin, was killed. Jordan, a friend of Howe's (who came *engagé de le cœur*, to see the campaign, a ship-mate of ours on board the Cerberus, and who acted as aid-de-camp) is badly wounded. Pigot was unhurt, but he behaved like a hero. You will see the list of loss. Poor col. Abercrombie, who commanded the grenadiers, died yesterday of his wounds, capt. Addison, our poor old friend, who arrived but the day before, and was to have dined with me on the day of action, was also killed, his son was upon the field at the same time, major Mitchel is but very slightly hurt; he is out already; young Chetwynd's wound is also slight. Lord Percy's regiment has suffered the most, and behaved the best, his Lordship himself was not in the action; Lord Rawdon† behaved to a charm; his name is established for life.

The following account from Boston, formed upon the testimonies of those found still surviving, who participated in the action, and who had the honour of pointing out to the President the ground, on his late visit, contains the particulars of their narration, corroborating, in the main points, the draught already given.

The peninsula of Charlestown is bounded on the north by the river Mystic, or Medford; on the south and south-west by Charles river, which separates it from Boston by a channel about a mile broad; and on the east by Boston harbour. On this peninsula rises an eminence called "Bunker's Hill," near which is another called Breed's Hill; this eminence has an easy ascent from the isthmus, but is steep on every other side; at the bottom of the hill, and on the side towards Boston, stands the town of Charlestown. Bunker's Hill overlooks the whole of Boston, and is sufficiently near the town to command it with a battery. The pos-

* His nephew the Hon. Thomas Stanley brother of Lord Stanley who is gone a volunteer to Boston in his Majesty service.

[The above note accompanied the original publication of the letter in England. The word "His" is to be understood as referring to the nobleman to whom the letter was addressed. He died in 1776, and was succeeded by his nephew, Lord Stanley. It was upon the marriage of Lord Stanley with Lady Betty Hamilton, and the *fête champêtre* given on that occasion, at a place called the *Oaks*, in the county of Surrey, that Genl. Burgoyne wrote his, "Maid of the Oaks."]

† Better known, of late years, as Earl of Moira, an eloquent speaker, and long the friend and counsellor of the Prince Regent of Great Britain, now governor general of the British possessions in the East Indies, and recently elevated to the title of marquis of Hastings.

session of this eminence, therefore, was an object of great importance, both to the Americans, who were collecting at Cambridge, and the British, who had possession of Boston, under general Gage, the new governor.

The Americans moved on from Cambridge in the night, passed the isthmus and took possession of the hill unobserved, although the British ships of war and transports almost surrounded the peninsula. It happened, from some misapprehension, that the troops took possession of Breed's Hill instead of Bunker's Hill, which had been designated in the orders, and it is this hill which is in the sketch called Bunker's Hill, and on which the action in fact took place. Here the Americans threw up a small redoubt, about eight rods square, and an intrenchment reaching to the bottom of the hill, towards Mystic river. These works were nearly completed during the night of the 16th of June, and were not discovered by the enemy until daylight, when the alarm was given by a cannonading which commenced upon the American works from the Lively ship of war, then lying off Charlestown. The British troops were immediately put in motion, and a battery of six guns was soon opened upon the Americans, from Copp's Hill, in Boston. About noon, a detachment from the British army, consisting of one regiment of light infantry, one regiment of grenadiers, and the 5th, 38th, 43d, and 52d regiments of the regular army, were landed upon the eastern point of the peninsula, under the command of maj. gen. Howe, and brig. gen. Pigot, with orders to dislodge the Americans, and drive them from the peninsula. The British troops formed immediately after landing, having in front six pieces of cannon; but so formidable was the appearance of the American works, that the generals thought proper to send orders for reinforcements, and to await their arrival; but in the mean time, to continue a cannonading upon the Americans, who took advantage of this delay to construct a kind of *abattis*, of posts and rails set in two parallel lines, near each other, having the space between filled full of grass and hay, which, having been just cut, lay spread on the ground.

At length the reinforcements, consisting of the 47th regiment, and a body of marines, landed on the south part of the peninsula, on the east side of the town, and immediately formed to receive their orders. The whole of the British forces were then immediately put in motion. The artillery, accompanied by three companies of grenadiers, moved in a direct line towards the American works on the hill, and the light infantry marched in companies, by double files, along the beach, to attack the right of the *abattis*, which the Americans had extended to the shore of Mystic river. The artillery was stopped by a marsh near the foot of the hill, and, being unable to proceed further in that direction, took station near an old brick kiln, whence they attempted to annoy the American works, but with very little effect.

The light infantry proceeded along the shore, unmolested, until they arrived within about twelve rods of the *abattis*, when the Americans suddenly opened a very heavy and destructive fire upon them, which threw them into much confusion, and caused them to retreat. They, however, recovered, and formed a line in front of and parallel to the *abattis*, at the distance of one hundred yards, where they kept up a well directed fire, with four companies of grenadiers on their left. While the infantry was thus attempting to force the *abattis*, and forming their line in front of it, the different regiments formed the line on their left, ex-

tending along in front of the American works on the hill. The reinforcements, which had by this time arrived in front of the redoubt, formed on the left of the 43d, with three companies of grenadiers and three of light infantry on their right. Thus the redoubt and breast-work were attacked on three sides at the same time. The whole of the British force amounted to about three thousand men; their right commanded by major general Howe, and their left by brigadier general Pigot. The American force, at the commencement of the action, amounted to one thousand men, under the command of colonel Prescott; but, while the British were awaiting the arrival of their reinforcements, and were cannonading from Moreton's Point, the Americans were also reinforced by the arrival of a body of volunteers and others, amounting to about five hundred men, under the command of generals Warren and Pomeroy. Twice had the British been checked and driven back, but as they had now succeeded in placing their cannon in a position to rake the American works, and as the fire from Copp's Hill and the ships in the harbour was again warmly renewed, the British commander gave orders to set the town on fire, and to storm the American works. At this juncture general Clinton, who had just crossed over from Boston, assisted in rallying the troops and leading them on to the charge. The attack now became general; but as the British had arrived very near to the breast-work, the powder of the Americans began to fail, and the force of their fire was very much weakened at the moment when it would have been the most destructive.

The British pushed forward, mounted the walls of the redoubt and breast-work, and carried them both at the point of the bayonet; the Americans continued retreating and fighting with the butt-ends of their guns, many of them not having bayonets. At this moment the town of Charlestown, which consisted of about five hundred houses, appeared in one great flame, and the firing from Copp's Hill, whence the rockets had been thrown, ceased: the heights of Boston were covered with spectators, composed of the citizens, and British troops, who had a full view of all the operations, and saw at once the destruction of the town, the capture of the redoubt, and the retreat of the American troops. The Americans retreated over Charlestown Neck, where they were much annoyed by the Glasgow man of war, and two gondolas, which had been stationed near the neck for that purpose, and also to prevent the Americans from sending reinforcements and supplies. The British lost 1054 men in killed and wounded; and the loss of the Americans in killed, wounded, and missing, was 453; among the former of whom was the brave WARREN.

The British pursued the Americans to the isthmus, and the 52d regiment encamped there during the night. The remaining troops returned to Charlestown. The day following the British threw up a breast-work on Bunker's Hill, which commands the neck of the peninsula; and, leaving a detachment to defend it, the remaining troops crossed into Boston.

Such was the battle of Breed's Hill—erroneously called the battle of *Bunker's Hill*—which was fought on the 17th of June, 1775, and was the first important action that took place in that revolution, which, to use the words of Mr Pitt, “deprived the diadem of Britain of its finest jewel, and created a great and powerful empire in the west.”

ART. XII.—POLITICAL SUMMARY.

The continued prevalence of strong gales from the west and north west, renders the arrival of intelligence from Europe more precarious than at any other period of the year. Notwithstanding the perfection to which the art of seamanship has been reduced by our experienced mariners, the difficulty of approach to our coast, during the winter months, is such as to retard expected arrivals. The spring is now advancing, and we may look for more regular accounts of the posture of affairs in the old world, as the stir of bustle and activity is resumed there. That portion of the year is just elapsed, which, in most countries, is appropriated to the regulation of matters of internal interest,—when the rigours of nature seem to impose restraints upon energy, and to have singled it out for design and preparation.

A diminution of the combined army of occupation in France, will probably be one of the first public measures to which the attention of the allied sovereigns will be called in the early part of the year—a measure urged by France, on the ground of her incompetence to meet the enormous demands made on her treasury, to discharge the debts incurred by French armies, during the Napoleon dynasty, in countries over-run by their power. It is her object to reduce the amount formerly stipulated to be paid for supplies furnished to the foreign troops, pleading, that both objects combined, exceed her expectation and ability to comply with. The request will, in all probability, be acceded to, since the public tranquillity admits of it, and, the reduction of their forces is an object of æconomy to the different powers concerned, on whom the expence of cloathing and equipping their several contingents, was understood to rest.

An expedition from Brest, under the command of general St. Cyr, took possession of Cayenne, an old colony belonging to France, on the 8th, November last. This settlement, on the north east coast of South America, it will be recollected, was taken during the late war, by a joint expedition of Portuguese and British, fitted out at the Brazils, the naval department of which was commanded by the English captain, J. L. Yeo, and on its surrender was ceded to Portugal, by an understand-

ing with the British government. *Cayenne* is situated between the equator, and the fifth degree of north latitude, and between the fiftieth, and the fifty fifth of west longitude. The island of Cayenne, which gives its name to the territory, lies at the mouth of a river bearing the same appellation, and is about forty five miles in circuit. The possession of this island gives command of the river, and ensures the submission of the rest of the settlement. It was this point therefore, that captain Yeo first took care to gain. It has some good harbours, and produces sugar and coffee. The territory on the adjacent continent, extends about two hundred and forty miles along the coast of Guiana, and near three hundred miles within land. It is bounded on the north by Surinam; on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by Amazonia; and by Guiana on the west. It begins at cape Orange, and extends as far to the south as the river Amazon. The red pungent pepper, known by the name of *Cayenne*, is celebrated over the world. In Cayenne, indeed, are raised very considerable quantities of the commodities which France receives from the West Indies.

It is in a colonial policy, and a cultivation of the peaceful pursuits of commerce, that France will find her truest interests.

From Russia we have no direct advices since the close of the Baltic for the season. The last intelligence of the emperor's movements, left him at Moscow, where he intended passing the winter, purposing to set out in spring for the southern provinces of his immense empire. He was to proceed to Astracan, Odessa, and Cherson, inspecting particularly the fertile districts of the Crimea. Much good may result from this journey, if his imperial majesty carries with him the disposition to rectify abuses, and introduce judicious systems of administration throughout those distant regions. We are happy to hear that the colonists from Scotland, who, of late years, have settled in great numbers in Poland, enjoy the utmost privileges, and that since the viceroyalty of the grand duke Constantine (brother of the emperor) at Warsaw, the most favourable changes have been operated throughout the Polish dominions. There have been established, not only schools for the sci-

ences, but also a great number of elementary seminaries, which are already on a respectable footing. The method of Pestolozzi is followed in some parts of Poland; but that of Bell and Lancaster seems better suited to the country, and the emperor has given orders for an extensive academy to be opened at Warsaw, under the management of one of the young Russians who had been studying this method in England, at the expence of the government. These symptoms indicate an enlightened spirit in the Russian councils.

There is an article in the *Dutch Papers*, dated from *St. Petersburg* which states, that the emperor of China has expressed a wish to have ambassadors at his court, from foreign powers—such, we suppose, as are willing to accede to the Tartar. Obeisance or nine inclinations of the head to the ground, so decidedly opposed by lord Amherst, on the recent embassy from Great Britain. That Russia will have an ambassador at that court, there is very little doubt, and that her influence was exerted on a late occasion, is a conjecture too probable to be overlooked. Russian politics have insinuated themselves through the remotest recesses of Tartary, into the Chinese dominions.

To give an idea of the commerce of the Baltic, it may be sufficient to state, that, in the third quarter of the last year, 2614 ships passed the sound from the north sea, and 2549 from the Baltic. Among the latter were 358 English, 382 Swedish, 265 Russian, 274 Dutch, 176 Norwegian, 124 Danish, 52 American, 66 Bremen, 81 Hanoverian, and 16 Hamburgh vessels.

In Sweden, the policy of allowing the exportation of timber in foreign vessels, upon the payment of the same duties as in national ships has been agitated; against which the ship owners and the whole Board of Trade in that country have declared, with the exception of the president, baron Edelkrantz. In the opinion given by the latter, we find the following remarkable facts “of the 24 governments, the 13 most populous alone, contain 2,400 square miles (meaning German or Swedish square miles, equal to 25 English) or 45 millions tons of land, covered with woods: as 6000 cubic feet are the smallest annual produce of one ton of land (so called from its being calculated to produce a certain quantity of corn) it follows

that 120 square miles are sufficient for the consumption of the mines, of the lime-kilns, of the tar-manufactories, fences, ship building, and fuel; and the produce of 2280 square miles may be spared for exportation. This exportation has hitherto amounted, on an average, to 57,000 beams, 23,000 spars, and 175,000 deals, worth 900,000 rix dollars. Now, as this whole exportation of 5,000,000 of cubic feet, require only four square miles to grow again in 100 years, the imagination is confounded at the immensity of the treasures which nature annually produces, and again suffers to decay without use, in these solitudes; and every patriot must be grieved when he sees that so small a part of them turns to the advantage of the country. A single parish lately afforded to the crown a forest covering 50,000 tons of land, or three fourths of the extent used for our whole exportation of timber, in order to be excused from a certain contribution. In the most favourable conjunctures, Norway exported annually to the amount of 5,000,000 of dollars, Hamburgh banco money.

These facts show, from the best authority, the capabilities of Sweden, and the advantage that would arise from extending the privilege of free export to foreign vessels, so as to take off her surplus produce, thereby turning to account the dead capital of the country.

Austria is using every exertion to increase her manufactories, her commerce, and her mercantile connexions. What Venice has been, every one acquainted with history well knows, and the port of Trieste is already become of immense resort. Steps have been taken to profit by the recent nuptials, in establishing a brisk intercourse with Brazil.

The prosperity of all classes in Prussia, is on the increase—public and private credit improve, and rents of houses are rising; the wages of labour are 33 per cent. higher than they were before the war in 1816, while the government is settling the extraordinary example of repaying the national debt in specie. Obligations have been extinguished to the amount of 2,200,000 florins,—a circumstance which must raise the credit of that state.

The finances of the kingdom of the Netherlands, we are happy to state also, are recovering from their former

depression. It will appear, from the following *Invitation to the gold coast*, that this shrewd and industrious power is not unmindful of those maxims of colonial policy, the observance of which, in former times, contributed so materially to uphold her commercial and naval renown.

“As the maintaining of a Dutch settlement on the coast of Guinea has for its object, not only to benefit trade, but also to derive all possible advantage from the fruitful soil of Africa, for the cultivation of colonial produce, and to make use of it for the mother country, it may not be unimportant to the public to be informed, that all persons or families, who are not wholly without resources of their own, and who may be inclined to settle on the gold coast, in the neighbourhood of d’Elmina, will receive every possible facility on the part of government. The European colonists may advantageously employ their knowledge and their industry in the cultivation of that fertile country; and the colonization of this Netherland possession, which, as well as the trade to those parts, will receive every encouragement from the state. The department of trade and colonies affords more particular information to all such as desire it.”

The eye to *trade*, so significant in this paragraph, still is the distinguishing characteristic, and probably ever will be, of Dutchmen; and if to this be added, profound views in political economy, such as gave a lasting name to the great De Witt and his followers, in the

annals of their country, we may regard them as sure prognostics of returning prosperity. In proof of the increase of Dutch commerce, it is sufficient to state that, by a careful enumeration made on the 19th September last, seven hundred and nine vessels were ascertained to be lying before the city of Amsterdam alone. Contrasting this with a period when, under the reign of despotism, grass was literally growing on its exchange, what an important improvement has been effected, happily for the interests of the nation, in all the departments of active life! in navigation, in foreign adventure, in manufactures, (to supply it and home consumption) in the employ for population, always attracted by demand, nourished and maintained by trade! That the government of the Netherlands views these matters in a proper light, we are disposed to infer from another circumstance. Several linen manufacturers of the district of Cambray (where the fine cambrics are made,) having represented that many of the thread looms were unemployed, for want of means to purchase thread, the king, on the report of the minister of the interior, ordered that the sum of 100,000 Dutch florins should be advanced to those manufacturers.

The latest advices from Great Britain bring nothing of consequence to require our notice. Of Spain and South America, it is our intention to treat at large, on some early occasion, among the leading articles of a future number, to which opportunity we postpone our farther observations.

ART. XIII.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, &c.*

USEFUL ARTS.

Mr. Smeaton, the celebrated engineer, made use of the following composition, as a cement in building the Ed-dystone Light House, near Plymouth, viz. A mixture of *Line of blue Lys*, and *Puzzolana* in equal quantities.

— *Ed.*

One of the public societies in the Netherlands has proposed the following as a prize question—which might well deserve the imitation of such institutions here. ‘What are the faults with which certain kinds of bricks made in this country are chargeable? By what means may they be rendered more perfect? What are the materials and the processes used, for the fabrication of

certain kinds of bricks, in which our makers are deficient? *ib.*

— AGRICULTURE.

New oats from Russia.—This variety has been sown in the south west of Scotland, during the last and present year, and found to be earlier than any other oat sown in the same neighbourhood; in 1816 it was a fortnight before the Sun oat, which is more forward than the potatoe oat. It will probably gain ground in rich but late soils; and in lands rather coarser and more exposed than what is suitable for the latter, for it is not so liable to shake, though in appearance and habit it is somewhat like it. The Sun oat has become a fa-

avourite in Scotland, and premiums are given by the Agricultural Society there, for the best samples of it for seed. The Russian oat is expected to come soon into request for the same purpose. In its native country, it is, according to the report of Dr. Rogerson, sown later than any other, commonly in May. It is to Dr. R. that the public is indebted for its introduction into Britain.

AGRICULTURAL.

Horse Chesnuts.—In Turkey, these nuts, the use of which has been neglected in every other country, are ground and mixed with the provender for horses, particularly for such as are broken-winded or troubled with coughs. After being boiled a little, to take off the bitterness, bruised and mixed with a small quantity of barley meal, they are a good food for rearing and fattening poultry.

Oil cakes, given to Milch cows, add considerably to the quantity and richness of their yield, without affecting its flavour. That distinguished agriculturist, Mr. J. C. Curwen, in his reports to the Workington Society for the Improvement of Agriculture, states that, in the course of his successful experiments, he finds the best mode of administering the oil cake, to be that of grinding it, mixing it in layers, and boiling it with the chaff, by which means, half the quantity answers better than as much more given in the cake. Oil cake has long been used with success, as the best method of fattening oxen, speedily, for the knife.

FINE ARTS.

The Annual Exhibition of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts will be opened in the commencement of May next, and continue six weeks. The objects in view being to display the progress of *Painting* in the U. States, to assist public judgment, and improve native artists by a comparison of their works, it is confidently hoped that the artists will aid such important purpo-

ses, by forwarding to the academy some of their works for exhibition, where they will be received with thanks, and preserved with care; if intended for sale, they will please to give their instructions to the academy, addressed to Mr. Francis Hopkinson, secretary to the institution.

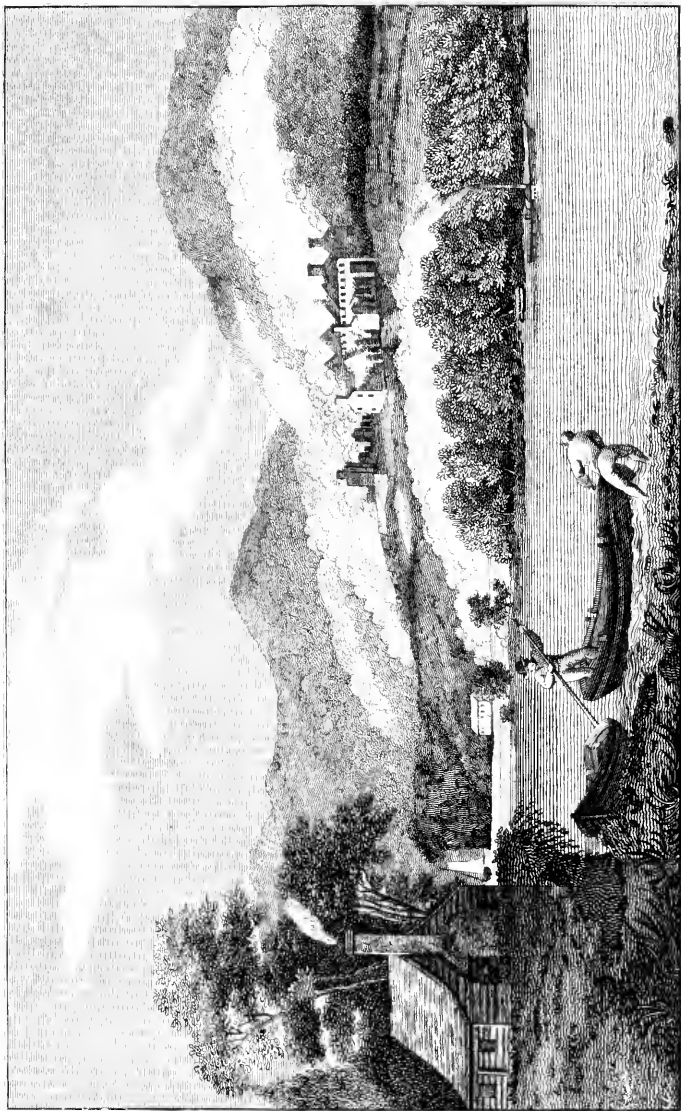
Female Influence.—When Haydn was in England, one of the princes commissioned sir Joshua Reynolds to take his portrait. Haydn went to the painter's house, and sat to him, but soon grew tired. Sir Joshua, careful of his reputation, would not paint a man of acknowledged genius with a stupid countenance; and deferred the, sitting till another day. The same weariness and want of expression occurring at the next attempt, Reynolds went to the prince and informed him of the circumstance, who contrived a stratagem. He sent to the painter's house a pretty German girl in the service of the queen. Haydn took his seat for the third time, and as soon as the conversation began to flag, a curtain rose, and the fair German addressed him in his native language, with a most elegant compliment. Haydn, delighted, overwhelmed the enchantress with questions; his countenance recovered its animation, and sir Joshua rapidly seized its traits.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Wm. Winston, Esq. late judge advocate of the United States army, has ready for the press a treatise on martial law, and courts martial—in 2 vols. octavo.

This compilation is adapted to the army and navy of the United States, with precedents of decisions of courts martial in the United States as well as Great Britain; and the general rules of evidence, alike applicable to courts martial, as the courts of Law, with appendix containing the rules and articles for the government of the army and navy of the United States, and the several laws of congress regulating either.





G. FAIRBANKS, Del.

VIEW of the RUINS of TICONDEROGA PORTS ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

Engraved for the American Magazine by A. V. B. & T. 1844.

A. V. B. & T. 1844.

THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

APRIL, 1818.

ART. I.—*Rob Roy*, by the author of “Waverley,” “Guy Manner-
ing,” and “the Antiquary.” 2 vols. 12mo. M. Thomas.
Second Philadelphia Edition, with a Glossary.

For why? Because the good old rule
Sufficeth them; the simple plan,
That they should take who have the power,
And they should keep who can.

Rob Roy's Grave.—WORDSWORTH.

THE labours of a powerful intellect applied to works of fiction, confer a value even upon our lighter recreations. Profiting by that eventful novelty of incident, which is calculated to engage while it leads the attention, instruction selects new images in administering its lessons, and contrives to ally the mind by fresh charms to what is generous and great in sentiment, correct and praiseworthy in action. Such may be the uses of these popular works, if guided by reason and sound principle; and it is only to their abuse that we are to attribute unfavourable consequences to the minds and welfare of those who peruse them. A class of writing has of late sprung up from the union of historical fact with the offspring of the imagination, and formed by the masterly hand of a genius that might adorn any path of letters, has established a rank in all the intrinsic properties of good sense and good writing, with the highest walks of the understanding. Since the days of Swift, of Smollett, and of Johnson who, by his *Rasselas*, shewed that he did not deem this species of composition unworthy of his grave abilities, we have seen no parallel to the searching satire, the humorous descriptions, the morality and pathos, combined indeed in the work before us, but for which we look in each of these writers separately. If La Fontaine, Marmontel, and Le Sage in France derived from their enchanting tales a literary immortality, if upon a like foundation, Goldsmith, Fielding and Richardson have raised the pillars of a lasting fame, the merit of that felicitous combination is as pre-eminent as it is durable, which seems to attain the various excellence we admire in these.

It is the distinguishing character of the standards in this line which have survived the test of time, that their portraits, drawn from the life, were not overcharged in the colouring. If we investigate the cause of our satisfaction in dwelling upon them, it is because they seized the weak and the strong points of our nature, placed them in unaffected attitudes, and if not precisely copying actual beings, at least they embodied faithful delineations of their composition. If we look farther, and seek their more solid distinctions, we shall find them in this, that beside rejecting supernatural interferences, banishing tales of wonder, and reducing amour and intrigue within reasonable bounds, they upheld the dignity by establishing the moral, of their fascinating creations. It was for an adherence to these few plain canons of criticism, and a happy skill to

“Catch the manners living as they rise”

that we could not but remark traits in *Waverley* of an extraordinary pen. It was a work abounding in those exquisite reaches of thought that belong only to a mind of the highest order. It touched the responsive chords of the heart. The same pursuance of classical manner, of wholesome aims, and instructive attainments, has since continued to produce the effect desired on public feeling.

Of all this author's works, *Rob Roy* has excited the liveliest interest. A belief that the well known talents of Walter Scott were enlisted in the composition, the previous celebrity of the author, whoever he might be, the value of the copy-right,* and, by inference, the sense of its merits entertained by the publisher, influenced, as is reasonable to conclude, by that of the Edinburgh critics—all these circumstances had raised curiosity to the very tip-toe of breathless expectation. It was difficult, no doubt, to satisfy this large demand of interest; a vigorous imagination, deep and extensive reading, profound knowledge of men and manners, fertility of invention—a towering faculty, commanding and moulding every resource to the purpose, could alone have inspired a consciousness and ability to meet it; but notwithstanding the local application of some of the incidents, the recourse had occasionally to a Scottish dialect, now lapsing fast into disuse, and, though appropriate enough in the scenes introduced, yet scarcely recommended to a majority of readers here, the fame of *Rob Roy* has exceeded that of all cotemporaries, and left its merits to be settled with the most distinguished of predecessors. Of the author of such a work we are naturally desirous to know the name and condition, and it is but reasonable to endeavour to discover to whom we are under obligation for instruction and amusement. On this point curiosity remains ungratified, for, in the advertisement to the reader, we recognize the same studied desire of concealment so equivocally expressed in the later editions of *Waverley*, and which continued and now repeated,

* 3000 guineas, or 14,000 dollars.

induce the suspicion that some object must exist to influence a mind so independent of either praise or censure, to elude the search of inquiry. This object, we have reason to believe, is altogether unconnected with the merits of the work, for there is in it, as well as the other productions of the same writer, every thing to admire, and nothing morally, or circumstantially, to blame. Neither are there allusions which can excite displeasure, nor, as in the case of Junius, provoke personal resentment. But, like Junius, *stat nominis umbra*.

‘The editor of the following volumes might shelter himself under the plea, that every anonymous writer is, like the celebrated Junius, only a phantom, and that therefore, although an apparition of a more benign, as well as much meaner description, he cannot be bound to plead to a charge of inconsistency in appearing again before the public, when, about two years since in the work called “The Antiquary” he announced that he was, for the last time, intruding in his present capacity.’

As if to shift an imputation that might be inconvenient if attached in the main, the humble character of “*Editor*” seems purposely assumed, and in support of this disguise, the credit of the narrative appears intentionally divided with a supposed unknown hand who supplied its materials.

‘It is now about six months since the author, through the medium of his respectable publishers, received a parcel of papers, containing the outlines of this narrative, with a permission, or rather with a request, couched in highly flattering terms, that they might be given to the public, with such alterations as should be found suitable. These were of course so numerous, that, besides the suppression of names, and of incidents approaching too much to reality, the work may in a great measure be said to be new written. Several anachronisms have probably crept in during the course of these changes; and the mottos for the chapters have been selected without any reference to the supposed date of the incidents. For these, of course, the editor is responsible. Some others occurred in the original materials, but they are of little consequence. In point of minute accuracy, it may be stated that, the bridge over the Forth, near the hamlet of Aberfoil, had not an existence thirty years ago. It does not, however, become the editor to be the first to point out these errors; and he takes this public opportunity to thank the unknown and nameless correspondent, to whom the reader will owe the principal share of any amusement which he may derive from the following pages.’

We have quoted this introduction with a view to show the ingenuity displayed in leading the mind of the reader to some unfixed and uncertain point where it is left to rest, and diverted from too intense a gaze at the nearer object; as also the desire to have attributed not to himself, but to the unknown and nameless correspondent, the principal share of the work. The motives to this proceeding it is believed are too cogent to weaken its probability.

The tale of *Rob Roy* is unfolded in a narrative of Frank Osbaldistone, the son of an eminent merchant in the city of London, addressed to his friend Will Tresham, detailing an account of his

history and adventures through a most eventful period of life. His father, a true specimen of the old commercial school, had placed the youth in a counting-house at Bordeaux, whither, and especially at Amsterdam, it was usual formerly to send the heirs of a firm for some years, with a view to gain experience of foreign transactions, and acquire commercial habits. Frank Osbaldistone appears to have been one of those whose minds are powerfully attracted by generous objects of pursuit, till they lose sight of sordid views, and forget, in their passion for literature, the seductions of what is denominated in the language of the exchange "the main chance." Accordingly, the injunctions of the parent are disobeyed, the folios of the ledger are deserted for the pages of the muse, and the promised successor to a lucrative concern, adds one to many living instances of the folly of legislating for the destinies of a child. Frank is summoned home to answer for his non-compliance, a court of inquiry is held, and terminates to no good purpose. Remonstrance is misplaced where nature and genius are opposed. Unconvincing therefore were the reasonings of the sire, and fruitless the persuasions of his head clerk Owen. Frank Osbaldistone is exiled to the mansion of an uncle in the north, in the hope that time and reflection, with the fear of disinheritance in favour of one of his rustic cousins, might work that revolution in opinion, which London's dusky atmosphere is little calculated to inspire. The journey is rendered as fruitful of incident as one jogging on horseback along a monotonous line of road could be supposed to find it. The company he falls in with, the tavern scene, and the character of Scotch prudence, naiveté, and intelligence displayed in one of the guests at the innkeeper's table, are subjects of curious and entertaining description. Attention is kept alive throughout—the sketches seem rather histories of facts than creations of the imagination, and they who have travelled much and become acquainted with those scenes will pronounce the verisimilitude to be most striking.

As the young man drew near to the mansion of the Osbaldistones, he thus describes the country he had entered, and never was description more chastely, more faithfully, or more sweetly conveyed.

'I approached my native north, for such I esteemed it, with that enthusiasm which romantic and wild scenery inspires in the lovers of nature. No longer interrupted by the babble of my companion, I could now remark the difference which the country exhibited from that through which I had hitherto travelled. The streams now more properly deserved the name, for, instead of slumbering stagnant among reeds and willows, they brawled along beneath the shade of natural copsewood; were now hurried down declivities, and now purled more leisurely, but still in active motion, through little lonely valleys, which opening on the road from time to time seemed to invite the traveller to explore their recesses. The Cheviots* rose before me in frowning majesty; not, indeed, with the sublime variety of rock and cliff which characterize

* A chain of mountains that form a natural boundary between England and Scotland.

mountains of the primary class, but huge, round-headed, and clothed with a dark robe of russet, gaining, by their extent and desolate appearance, an influence upon the imagination, which possessed a character of its own. The abode of my fathers which I was now approaching, was situated in a glen, or narrow valley, which ran up among those hills.'

Advancing towards Osbaldistone-Hall, the seat of his uncle, sir Hildebrand Osbaldistone, our pilgrim's attention is arrested by the approach of a pack of hounds, followed by a party, among whom were his cousins, accompanied by a lovely huntress, related to the family, who by that amiable charm which belongs to frankness, converts the bashfulness of her companion 'Thorncliffe Osbaldistone into a ground of introduction—her name Diana Vernon, an inmate of the family, the daughter of sir Hildebrand's wife's brother.'

'From the summit of an eminence, I had already had a distant view of Osbaldistone-Hall, a large and antiquated edifice, peeping out from a Druidical grove of huge oaks; and I was directing my course towards it, as straightly and as speedily as the windings of a very indifferent road would permit, when my horse, tired as he was, pricked up his ears at the enlivening notes of a pack of hounds in full cry, cheered by the occasional bursts of a French horn, which in those days was a constant accompaniment to the chase. I made no doubt that the pack was my uncle's, and drew up my horse with the purpose of suffering the hunters to pass without notice, aware that a hunting field was not the proper scene to introduce myself to a keen sportsman, and determined when they had passed on, to proceed to the mansion-house at my own pace, and there to await the return of the proprietor from his sport. I paused, therefore, on a rising ground, and not unmoved by the sense of interest which that species of sylvan sport is so much calculated to inspire, (although my mind was not at the moment very accessible to impressions of this nature,) I expected with some eagerness the appearance of the huntsmen.

'The fox, hard run, and nearly spent, first made his appearance from the copse which clothed the right-hand side of the valley. His drooping brush, his soiled appearance, and jaded trot, proclaimed his fate impending; and the carrion crow, which hovered over him, already considered poor Reynard as soon to be his prey. He crossed the stream which divides the little valley, and was dragging himself up a ravine on the other side of its wild banks, when the headmost hounds, followed by the rest of the pack at full cry, burst from the coppice, followed by the huntsman, and three or four riders. The dogs pursued the trace of Reynard with unerring instinct; and the hunters followed with reckless haste, regardless of the broken and difficult nature of the ground. They were tall, stout young men, well mounted, and dressed in green and red, the uniform of a sporting association, formed under the auspices of old Sir Hildebrand Osbaldistone. My cousins! thought I, as they swept past me. The next reflection was, what is my reception likely to be among these worthy successors of Nimrod? and how improbable is it, that I, knowing little or nothing of rural sports, shall find myself at ease, or happy, in my uncle's family. A vision that passed me interrupted these reflections.

'It was a young lady, the loveliness of whose very striking features was enhanced by the animation of the chase and the glow of the exercise, mounted on a beautiful horse, jet black, unless where he was flecked by spots of the snow-white foam which embossed his bridle. She

wore what was then somewhat unusual, a coat, vest, and hat, resembling those of a man, which fashion has since called a riding-habit. The mode had been introduced while I was in France, and was perfectly new to me. Her long black hair streamed on the breeze, having in the hurry of the chase escaped from the riband which bound it. Some very broken ground through which she guided her horse with the most admirable address and presence of mind, retarded her course, and brought her closer to me than any of the other riders had passed. I had, therefore, a full view of her uncommonly fine face and person, to which an inexpressible charm was added by the wild gayety of the scene, and the romance of her singular dress and unexpected appearance. As she past me, her horse made, in his impetuosity, an irregular movement, just while, coming once more upon open ground, she was again putting him to his speed. It served as an apology for me to ride close up to her, as if to her assistance. There was, however, no cause for alarm; it was not a stumble, nor a false step; and if it had, the fair Amazon had too much self-possession to have been deranged by it. She thanked my good intentions however, by a smile, and I felt encouraged to put my horse to the same pace, and to keep in her immediate neighbourhood. The clamour of "Whoop, dead, dead!" and the corresponding flourish of the French horn, soon announced to us that there was no more occasion for haste, since the chase was at a close. One of the young men whom we had seen, approached us, waving the brush of the fox in triumph, as if to upbraid my fair companion.

'I see,' she replied,—'I see; but make no noise about it: if Phœbe,' she said, patting the neck of the beautiful animal on which she rode, 'had not got among the cliffs, you would have had little cause for boasting.'

'They met as she spoke, and I observed them both look at me and converse a moment in an under tone, the young lady apparently pressing the sportsman to do something which he declined shyly, and with a sort of sheepish sullenness. She instantly turned her horse's head towards me, saying,—'Well, well. Thornie, if you wont, I must, that's all.—Sir,' she continued, addressing me; 'I have been endeavouring to persuade this cultivated young gentleman to make inquiries at you, whether, in the course of your travels in these parts, you have heard any thing of a friend of ours, one Mr. Francis Osbaldistone, who has been for some days expected at Osbaldistone-Hall?'

'I was too happy to acknowledge myself to be the party inquired after, and to express my thanks for the obliging inquiries of the young lady.

'In that case, sir,' she rejoined, 'as my kinsman's politeness seems to be still slumbering, you will permit me (though I suppose it is highly improper) to stand mistress of ceremonies, and to present to you young Squire Thorncliff Osbaldistone, your cousin, and Die Vernon, who has also the honour to be your accomplished cousin's poor kinswoman.'

'There was a mixture of boldness, satire, and simplicity in the manner in which Miss Vernon pronounced these words. My knowledge of life was sufficient to enable me to take up a corresponding tone as I expressed my gratitude to her for her condescension, and my extreme pleasure at having met with them. To say the truth, the compliment was so expressed, that the lady might easily appropriate the greater share of it, for Thorncliff seemed an arrant country bumpkin, awkward, shy, and somewhat sulky withal. He shook hands with me, however, and then

intimated his intention of leaving me that he might help the huntsman and his brothers to couple up the hounds, a purpose which he rather communicated by way of information to Miss Vernon than as apology to me.'

A description of the Hall concludes the fourth chapter, and of his reception by sir Hildebrand and his sons opens the next. The characters of a fox-hunting family are well portrayed, and Miss Vernon shows herself to be capable of making a deep impression, though apparently, in her first aspect, a strange bold girl, half coquette, half romp. Rashleigh Osbaldistone is the youth for whom the honours of the London House are in abeyance, and by Miss Vernon's information it appears, that calculating cunning well qualified him for the elevation.

In his rambles about the pleasure grounds, the new comer falls into conversation with the old Scotch gardener, Andrew Fairservice, who, it appears, well read in the history of the family, delivers his opinions with a shrewdness and intelligence quite characteristic of his countrymen. Diana Vernon becomes the subject of it, and from him Frank, with no slight degree of interest withal, extracts the information that she is of the Catholic persuasion and a Jacobite. Here it is necessary to remark that the times* are supposed to be after James, (rendered obnoxious by his adherence to Papistical bigotry, intolerance, and persecution of the reformed religion) had been obliged to fly, and the revolution of 1688 brought about, when William, Prince of Orange, was invited from Holland to fill the throne of England. The Protestant succession was established, and the maintenance of its religion is now the fundamental principle of the reigning house of Hanover. The family of sir Hildebrand Osbaldistone appears to have been warmly attached to the cause of king James, as indeed the Catholics of those days were, and on that account in the language of the times, to have ranked as Jacobites or adherents of James's party.

The morning following his arrival at the Hall, our hero joins the usual hunting party, and takes his station beside Miss Vernon. Whilst upon the hills, she points out to him the adjacent territory of Scotland, where it is separated from England by the border, at a distance of a few miles, and with an anxiety that portended more than ordinary moment, recommended him to retire, into that country (a circumstance of no unusual occurrence at the period,) where he might be safe from the hands of justice, the laws on the one side then taking no cognizance of acts performed on the other. Francis surprised, eagerly inquires the object of this advice, and to his utter astonishment is informed, that a warrant is out for his apprehension, on suspicion of being concerned in robbing one Morris, a king's messenger, with whom he journeyed on the road down into the north, the bearer it appears of a large sum in cash and bills for the payment of the troops in Scotland. With the confidence that belongs to a conscience void of offence, disdaining the thought of re-

* The year 1715, when the rebellion in Scotland took place.

treat, he avows his determination to seek and answer to the charge. He repairs instantly from the field to the house of the justice of the peace where, somewhat mysteriously, Rashleigh Osbaldistone presents himself, but departs soon after.

‘There’s no jest whatever,’ said Diana; ‘you are accused of robbing this man, and my uncle believes it as well as I did.’

‘Upon my honour, I am greatly obliged to my friends for their good opinion.’

‘Now do not, if you can help it, snort, and stare, and snuff the wind, and look so exceedingly like a startled horse—There’s no such offence as you suppose—you are not charged with any petty larceny, or vulgar felony—by no means. This fellow was carrying money from government, both specie and bills, to pay the troops in the north; and it is said he has been also robbed of some despatches of great consequence.’

‘And so it is high treason, then, and not simple robbery, of which I am accused?’

‘Certainly; which you know, has been in all ages accounted the crime of a gentleman. You will find plenty in this country, and one not far from your elbow, who think it a merit to distress the Hanoverian government by every means possible.’

‘Neither my politics nor my morals, Miss Vernon, are of a description so accommodating.’

‘I really begin to believe that you are a presbyterian and Hanoverian in good earnest. But what do you propose to do?’

‘Instantly to refute this atrocious calumny. Before whom,’ I asked, ‘was this extraordinary accusation laid?’

‘Before old Squire Inglewood, who had sufficient unwillingness to receive it. He sent tidings to my uncle, I suppose, that he might smuggle you away into Scotland, out of reach of the warrant. But my uncle is sensible that his religion and old predilections render him obnoxious to government, and that, were he caught playing booty, he would be disarmed, and probably dismounted, (which would be the worse evil of the two,) as a jacobite, papist, and suspected person.’

‘I can conceive that, sooner than lose his hunters, he would give up his nephew.’

‘His nephew, niece, sons—daughters, if he had them, and whole generation,’ said Diana; ‘therefore trust not to him, even for a single moment, but make the best of your way before they can serve the warrant.’

‘That I shall certainly do; but it shall be to the house of this Squire Inglewood—which way does it lie?’

‘About five miles off, in the low ground, behind yonder plantations—you may see the tower of the clock-house.’

‘I will be there in a few minutes,’ said I, putting my horse in motion.

‘And I will go with you, and show you the way,’ said Diana, putting her palfrey also to the trot.

‘Do not think of it, Miss Vernon; it is not—permit me the freedom of a friend—it is not proper, scarcely even delicate, in you to go with me upon such an errand as I am now upon.’

‘I understand your meaning,’ said Miss Vernon, a slight blush crossing her haughty brow;—‘it is plainly spoken,’—and after a moment’s pause she added, ‘and I believe kindly meant.’

‘It is indeed, Miss Vernon; can you think me insensible of the inte-

rest you show me, or ungrateful for it?' said I, with even more interest than I could have wished to express. 'Your's is meant for true kindness, shown best at the hour of need. But I must not, for your own sake—for the chance of misconstruction—suffer you to pursue the dictates of your generosity; this is so public an occasion—it is almost like venturing into an open court of justice.'

'And if it were not almost, but altogether, entering into an open court of justice, do you think I would not go there if I thought it right, and wished to protect a friend? You have no one to stand by you—you are a stranger; and here, in the outskirts of the kingdom, country justices do odd things. My uncle has no desire to embroil himself in your affair;—Rashleigh is absent, and were he here, there is no knowing which side he might take;—the rest are all more stupid and brutal one than another. I will go with you, and I do not fear being able to serve you. I am no fine lady, to be terrified to death with law books, hard words, or big wigs.'

'But, my dear Miss Vernon—'

'But, my dear Mr. Francis, be patient and quiet, and let me take my own way; for when I take the bit between my teeth, there is no bridle will stop me.'

'Flattered with the interest so lovely a creature seemed to take in my fate, yet vexed at the ridiculous appearance I should make, by carrying a girl of eighteen along with me as an advocate, and seriously concerned for the misconstruction to which her motives might be exposed, I endeavoured to combat her resolution to accompany me to Squire Inglewood's. The self-will'd girl told me roundly, that my dissuasions were absolutely in vain; that she was a true Vernon whom no consideration, not even that of being able to do but little to assist him, should induce to abandon a friend in distress; and that all I could say on the subject might be very well for pretty, well-educated, well-behaved misses from a town boarding-school, but did not apply to her, who was accustomed to mind nobody's opinion but her own.

'While she spoke thus we were advancing hastily towards Inglewood-Place, while, as if to divert me from the task of farther remonstrance, she drew a ludicrous picture of the magistrate and his clerk. Inglewood was, according to her description, a white-washed jacobite, that is, one who, having been long a non-juror, like most of the other gentlemen of the country, had lately qualified himself to act as a justice, by taking the oaths to government. 'He had done so,' she said, 'in compliance with the urgent request of most of his brother squires, who saw, with regret, that the palladium of sylvan sport, the game-laws, were likely to fall into disuse for want of a magistrate who would enforce them; the nearest acting justice being the Mayor of Newcastle, and he, as being rather inclined to the consumption of the game when properly dressed, than to its preservation when alive, was more partial, of course, to the cause of the poacher than of the sportsman. Resolving, therefore, that it was expedient some one of their number should sacrifice the scruples of jacobitical loyalty to the good of the community, the Northumbrian country gentlemen imposed the duty on Inglewood, who, being very inert in most of his feelings and sentiments, might, they thought, comply with any political creed without much repugnance. Having thus procured the body of justice, they proceeded,' continued Miss Vernon, 'to attach to it a clerk, by way of soul, to direct and animate its movements. Accordingly they got a sharp Newcastle attorney, called Jobson; who, to

vary my metaphor, finds it a good thing enough to retail justice at the sign of Squire Ingiewood, and, as his own emoluments depend on the quantity of business which he transacts, he hooks in his principal for a great deal more employment in the justice-line than the honest squire had ever bargained for; so that no apple-wife within the circuit of ten miles can settle her account with a coster-monger without an audience of the reluctant justice and his alert clerk, Mr. Joseph Jobson. But the most ridiculous scenes occur when affairs come before him, like our business of to-day, having any colouring of politics. Mr. Joseph Jobson (for which no doubt, he has his own very sufficient reasons,) is a prodigious zealot for the protestant religion, and a great friend to the present establishment in church and state. Now, his principal, retaining a sort of instinctive attachment to the opinions which he professed openly, until he relaxed his political creed, with the patriotic view of enforcing the law against unauthorized destroyers of blackgame, grouse, partridges, and hares, is peculiarly embarrassed when the zeal of his assistant involves him in judicial proceedings connected with his earlier faith; and instead of seconding his zeal, he seldom fails to oppose to it a double dose of indolence and lack of exertion. And this inactivity does not by any means arise from actual stupidity. On the contrary, for one whose principal delight is in eating and drinking, he is an alert, joyous, and lively old soul, which makes his assumed dulness the more diverting. So you may see Jobson on such occasions, like a bit of a broken-down blood tit condemned to drag an overloaded cart puffing, strutting, and spitting, to get the justice put in motion, while though the wheels groan, creak, and revolve slowly, the great and prepondering weight of the vehicle fairly frustrates the efforts of the willing quadruped, and prevents its being brought into a state of actual progression. Nay more, the unfortunate poney, I understand, has been heard to complain, that this same car of justice, which he finds it so hard to put in motion on some occasions, can on others run fast enough down hill of its own accord, dragging his reluctant self backwards along with it, when any thing can be done of service to Squire Ingiewood's quondam friends. And then Mr. Jobson talks big about reporting his principal to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, if it were not for his particular regard and friendship for Mr. Ingiewood and his family.'

'As Miss Vernon concluded this whimsical description, we found ourselves in front of Ingiewood-Place, a handsome, though old-fashioned building, which showed the consequence of the family.

'I followed Miss Vernon as she tripped up a few gloomy steps, traversed a twilight passage and entered a sort of anteroom, hung round with old maps, architectural elevations, and genealogical trees. A pair of folding doors opened from this into Mr. Ingiewood's sitting apartment, from which was heard the fag-end of an old ditty, chanted by a voice which had been in its day fit for a jolly bottle song.

"O, in Skipton-in-Craven,
Is never a haven,
But many a day foul weather;
And he that would say
A pretty girl nay,
I wish for his cravat a tether."—

'Hey day!' said Miss Vernon, 'the genial justice must have dined already,—I did not think it had been so late.'

‘It was even so. Mr. Inglewood’s appetite having been sharpened by his official investigations, he had ante-dated his meridian repast, having dined at twelve instead of one o’clock, then the general dining-hour in England. The various occurrences of the morning occasioned our arriving some time after this hour, to the justice the most important of the four-and-twenty, and he had not neglected the interval. ‘Stay you here,’ said Diana; ‘I know the house, and I will call a servant; your sudden appearance might startle the old gentleman even to choking;’ and she escaped from me, leaving me uncertain whether I ought to advance or retreat. It was impossible for me not to hear some part of what past within the dinner apartment, and particularly several apologies for declining to sing, expressed in a dejected croaking voice, the tones of which I conceived were not entirely new to me. ‘Not sing, sir! by our lady! but you must—What! you have cracked my silver-mounted cocoa-nut of sack, and tell me that you cannot sing!—Sir, sack will make a cat speak and sing too; so up with a merry stave, or trundle yourself out of my doors—Do you think you are to take up all my valuable time with your d——d declarations, and then tell me you cannot sing!’

‘Your worship is perfectly in rule,’ said another voice, which, from its pert conceited accent, might be that of the clerk, ‘and the party must be conformable; he hath *canet* written on his face in court hand.’

‘Up with it, then,’ said the justice, ‘or by St. Christopher, you shall crack the cocoa-nut full of salt and water, according to the statute for such effect made and provided’

‘Thus exhorted and threatened, my quondam fellow-traveller, for I could no longer doubt that he was the recusant in question, uplifted, with a voice similar to that of a criminal singing his last psalm on the scaffold, a most doleful stave to the following effect:

“ Good people all, I pray give ear,
A woful story you shall hear,
’Tis of a robber as stout as ever
Bade a true man stand and deliver.
With his foodle doo fa foodle loo.

“ This knave most worthy of a cord,
Being arm’d with pistol and with sword,
’Twixt Kensington and Brentford then
Did boldly stop six honest men.
With his foodle doo, &c.

“ These honest men did at Brentford dine.
Having drank each man his pint of wine,
When this bold thief, with many curses,
Did say, You dogs, your lives or purses.
With his foodle doo,” &c.

I question if the honest men, whose misfortune is commemorated in this pathetic ditty, were more startled at the appearance of the bold thief, than the songster was at mine; for tired of waiting for some one to announce me, and finding my situation as a listener rather awkward, I presented myself to the company just as my friend Mr. Morris, for such, it seems, was his name, was uplifting the fifth stave of his doleful ballad. The high note, with which the tune started, died away in a quaver of consternation upon finding himself so near one whose character he supposed to be little less suspicious than that of the hero of his ma-

drigal, and he remained silent, with a mouth gaping as if I had brought the Gorgon's head in my hand.

'The justice, whose eyes had closed under the influence of the somniferous lullaby of the song, started up in his chair as it suddenly ceased, and stared with wonder at the unexpected addition which the company had received, while his organs of sight were in abeyance. The clerk, as I conjectured him to be from his appearance, was also commoved, for, sitting opposite to Mr. Morris, that honest gentleman's terror communicated itself to him, though he wotted not why.'

The perversions of law in those as in later periods are happily exemplified in the character of the justice's clerk, one Jobson, a man wresting its chicanery and its quibbles to his own vile purposes, in extortions upon the innocent, and we acquire no favourable impression of its powers in the hands of dangerous men, as interpreted by this unworthy disciple of Blackstone. At the examination, so ingeniously are the circumstances plotted, and occasionally such an aspect of fearful suspense do the proceedings assume, that we seem to tremble for the arraigned, and to feel for innocence unjustly suspected more than probably Francis would himself have felt.

We are tempted to give the examination at large, as it is *unique* of its kind, and, for humour and caricature of his profession may relax the proverbial gravity even of a judge himself.

'I broke the silence of surprise occasioned by my abrupt entrance. 'My name, Mr. Inglewood, is Francis Osbaldistone; I understand that some scoundrel has brought a complaint before you, charging me with being concerned in a loss which he says he has sustained.'

'Sir,' said the justice, somewhat peevishly, 'these are matters I never enter upon after dinner—there is a time for every thing, and a justice of peace must eat as well as other folks.'

'The goodly person of Mr. Inglewood, by the way; seemed by no means to have suffered by any fasts, whether in the service of the law or of religion.'

'I beg pardon for my ill-timed visit, sir; but as my reputation is concerned, and as the dinner appears to be concluded—'

'It is not concluded, sir,' replied the magistrate, 'man requires digestion as well as food, and I protest I cannot have benefit from my victuals, unless I am allowed two hours of quiet leisure, intermixed with harmless mirth, and a moderate circulation of the bottle.'

'If your honour will forgive me,' said Mr. Jobson, who had produced and arranged his writing implements in the brief space that our conversation afforded; 'as this is a case of felony, and the gentleman seems something impatient, the charge is *contra pacem domini regis*—'

'*D—n domini regis!*' said the impatient justice,—'I hope it's no treason to say so;—but it's enough to make one mad to be worried in this way—have I a moment of my life quiet, for warrants, orders, directions, acts, bails, bonds, and recognisances?—I pronounce to you, Mr. Jobson, that I shall send you and the justiceship to the devil one of these days.'

'Your honour will consider the dignity of the office—one of the *quorum* and *custos rotulorum*, an office of which sir Edward Coke wisely saith, The whole christian world hath not the like of it, so it be duly executed.'

‘Well,’ said the justice, partly reconciled by this eulogium on the dignity of his situation, and gulping down the rest of his dissatisfaction in a huge bumper of claret, ‘let us to this gear then, and get rid of it as fast as we can.—Here you, sir,—you, Morris—you, knight of the sorrowful countenance—is this Mr. Francis Osbaldistone the gentleman whom you charge with being art and part of felony?’

‘I, sir?’ replied Morris, whose scattered wits had hardly yet re-assembled themselves—‘I charge nothing—I say nothing against the gentleman.’

‘Then we dismiss your complaint, sir, that’s all, and a good riddance—Push about the bottle—Mr. Osbaldistone, help yourself.’

‘Jobson, however, was determined that Morris should not back out of the scrape so easily. ‘What do you mean, Mr Morris?—Here is your own declaration—the ink scarce dried—and you would retract it in this scandalous manner!’

‘How do I know,’ whispered the other, in a tremulous tone, ‘how many rogues are in the house to back him—I have read of such things in Johnson’s *Lives of the Highwaymen*.—I protest the door opens’—

‘And it did open, and Diana Vernon entered—‘You keep fine order here, justice—not a servant to be seen or heard.’

‘Ah!’ said the justice, starting up with an alacrity which showed that he was not so engrossed by his devotions to Themis, or Comus, to forget what was due to beauty—‘Ah, ha! Die Vernon, the heath bell of Cheviot, and the blossom of the Border, come to see how the old bachelor keeps house—Art welcome, girl, as flowers in May.’

‘A fine open, hospitable house you do keep, justice, that must be allowed—not a soul to answer a visiter.’

‘Ah! the knaves, they reckoned themselves secure of me for a couple of hours—But why did you not come earlier?—Your cousin Rashleigh dined here, and ran away like a poltroon after the first bottle was out—But you have not dined—we’ll have something nice and lady-like—sweet and pretty, like yourself, tossed up in a trice.’

‘I can’t stay, justice—I came with my cousin, r’rank Osbaldistone, there, and I must show him the way back again to the Hall, or he’ll lose himself in the wolds.’

‘Whew! sits the wind in that quarter?’ answered the justice

“She showed him the way, and she showed him the way,
She showed him the way to woo.”

‘What! no luck for old fellows, then, my sweet bud of the wilderness?’

‘None whatever, squire Inglewood; but if you will be a good kind justice, and despatch young Frank’s business, and let us canter home again, I’ll bring my uncle to dine with you next week, and we’ll expect merry doings.’

‘And you shall find them, my pearl of Tyne—Zookers, lass, I never envy these young fellows their rides and scampers, unless when you come across me. But I must not keep you just now, I suppose? I am quite satisfied with Mr. Francis Osbaldistone’s explanation—here has been some mistake, which can be cleared at greater leisure.’

‘Pardon me, sir,’ said I, ‘but I have not heard the nature of the accusation yet.’

‘Yes sir,’ said the clerk, who, at the appearance of Miss Vernon, had given up the matter in despair, but who picked up courage to press

farther investigation, on finding himself supported from a quarter whence assuredly he expected no backing—‘Yes, sir, and Dalton saith, That he who is apprehended as a felon shall not be discharged upon any man’s discretion, but shall be held either to bail or commitment, paying the clerk of the peace the usual fees for recognisance or commitment.’

‘The justice, thus goaded on, gave me at length a few words of explanation.

‘It seems the tricks which I had played to this man, Morris, had made a strong impression on his imagination; for I found they had been arrayed against me in his evidence, with all the exaggeration which a timorous and heated imagination could suggest. It appeared also, that, on the day he parted from me, he had been stopped on a solitary spot, and eased of his beloved travelling-companion, the portinanteau, by two men, well mounted and armed, having their faces covered with vizards.

‘One of them, he conceived, had much of my shape and air, and in a whispering conversation which took place betwixt the free-booters, he heard the other apply to him the name of Osbaldistone. The declaration farther set forth, that, upon inquiring into the principles of the family so named, he, the said declarant, was informed, that they were of the worst description, the family, in all its members, having been papists and jacobites, as he was given to understand by the dissenting clergyman at whose house he stopped after his rencontre, since the days of William the Conqueror.

‘Upon all, and each of these weighty reasons, he charged me with being accessory to the felony committed upon his person; he, the said declarant then travelling in the special employment of government, and having charge of certain important papers, and also a large sum in specie, to be paid over, according to his instructions, to certain persons of official trust and dignity in Scotland.

‘Having heard this extraordinary accusation, I replied to it, that the circumstances on which it was founded were such as could warrant no justice, or magistrate, in any attempt on my personal liberty. I admitted that I had practised a little upon the terrors of Mr. Morris, while we travelled together, but in such trifling particulars as could have excited apprehension in no one who was one whit less timorous and jealous than himself. But I added, that I had never seen him since we parted, and if that which he feared had really come upon him, I was in no ways accessory to an action so unworthy of my character and station in life. That one of the robbers was called Osbaldistone, or that such a name was mentioned in the course of the conversation betwixt them, was a trifling circumstance, to which no weight was due. And concerning the disaffection alleged against me, I was willing to prove to the satisfaction of the justice, the clerk, and even the witness himself, that I was of the same persuasion as his friend the dissenting clergyman; had been educated as a good subject upon the principles of the Revolution, and as such now demanded the personal protection of the laws which had been assured by that great event.

‘The justice fidgetted, took snuff, and seemed considerably embarrassed, while Mr. Attorney Jobson, with all the volubility of his profession, ran over the statute of the 34. Edward III., by which justices of the peace are allowed to arrest all those whom they find by indictment or suspicion, and to put them into prison. The rogue even turned my own admissions against me, alleging, that since I had confessedly, upon

my own showing, assumed the bearing or deportment of a robber or malefactor, I had voluntarily subjected myself to the suspicions of which I complained, and brought myself within the compass of the act having wilfully clothed my conduct with all the colour and livery of guilt.

‘I combatted both his arguments and his jargon with much indignation and scorn, and observed, ‘that I should, if necessary, produce the bail of my relations, which I conceived could not be refused, without subjecting the magistrate in a misdemeanour.’

‘Pardon me, my good sir,—pardon me,’ said the insatiable clerk, ‘this is a case in which neither bail nor mainprize can be received, the felon who is liable to be committed on heavy grounds of suspicion, not being replevisable under the statute of the 3d of king Edward, there being in that act an express exception of such as be charged of commandment, or force, and aid of felony done;’ and he hinted, that his worship would do well to remember that such were no way replevisable by common writ, nor without writ.

‘At this period of the conversation a servant entered, and delivered a letter to Mr. Jobson. He had no sooner run it hastily over, than he exclaimed, with the air of one who wished to appear much vexed at the interruption, and felt the consequence attached to a man of multifarious avocations—‘Good God!—why, at this rate I shall have neither time to attend to the public concerns nor my own—no rest—no quiet—I wish to Heaven another gentleman in our line would settle here!’

‘God forbid!’ said the justice, in a tone of *sotto-voce* deprecation; ‘some of us have enough of one of the tribe.’

‘This is a matter of life and death, if your worship pleases.’

‘In God’s name! no more justice business, I hope,’ said the alarmed magistrate.

‘No—no,’ replied Mr. Jobson, very consequentially; ‘old Gaffer Rutledge of Grime’s-hill, is subpcena’d for the next world; he has sent an express for Dr. Killdown to put in bail—another for me to arrange his worldly affairs.’

‘Away with you, then,’ said Mr. Inglewood hastily; ‘his may not be a replevisable case under the statute, you know, or Mr. Justice Death may not like the doctor for a *main pernor*, or bailsmen.’

‘And yet,’ said Jobson, lingering as he moved towards the door, ‘if my presence here be necessary—I could make out the warrant for committal in a moment, and the constable is below—And you have heard,’ he said, lowering his voice, ‘Mr. Rashleigh’s opinion’—the rest was lost in whisper.

‘The justice replied aloud, ‘I tell thee no, man, no—we’ll do nought till thou return, man, ’tis but a four-mile ride—Come, push bottle, Mr. Morris—Don’t be cast down, Mr. Osbaldistone—And you, my rose of the wilderness—one cup of claret to refresh the bloom of your cheeks.’

‘Diana started, as if from a reverie, in which she appeared to have been plunged while he held this discussion. ‘No, justice, I should be afraid of transferring the bloom to a part of my face where it would show to little advantage. But I will pledge you in a cooler beverage;’ and, filling a glass with water, she drank it hastily, while her hurried manner belied her assumed gayety.

‘I had not much leisure to make remarks upon her demeanour, however, being full of vexation at the interference of fresh obstacles to an instant examination of the disgraceful and impertinent charge which was brought against me. But there was no moving the justice to take the

matter up in absence of his clerk, an incident which gave him apparently as much pleasure as a holiday to a schoolboy. He persisted in his endeavours to inspire jollity into a company, the individuals of which, whether considered with reference to each other, or to their respective situations, were by no means inclined to mirth. 'Come, master Morris, you're not the first man that's been robbed, I trow—grieving ne'er brought back lost, man.—And you, Mr. Frank Osbaldistone, are not the first bully-boy that has said stand to a true man. There was Jack Winterfield, in my young days, kept the best company in the land—at horse-races and cockfights who but he—hand and glove was I with Jack.—Push bottle, Mr. Morris, it's dry talking—many quart bumpers have I cracked, and thrown many a merry main with poor Jack—good family—ready wit—quick eye—as honest a fellow, barring the deed he died for—we'll drink to his memory, gentlemen—Poor Jack Winterfield—And since we talk of him, and of these sort of things, and since that d—d clerk of mine has taken his gibberish elsewhere, and since we're snug among ourselves, Mr. Osbaldistone, if you will have my best advice, I would take up this matter—the law's hard—very severe—hanged poor Jack Winterfield at York, despite family connexions and great interest—all for easing a fat west country grazier of the price of a few beasts—Now, here is honest Mr. Morris has been frightened, and so forth—D—n it, man, let the poor fellow have back his portmanteau, and end the frolic at once.'

'Morris's eyes brightened up at this suggestion, and he began to hesitate forth an assurance that he thirsted for no man's blood, when I cut the proposed accommodation short, by resenting the justice's suggestion as an insult, that went directly to suppose me guilty of the very crime, which I had come to his house with the express intention of disavowing. We were in this awkward predicament, when a servant, opening the door, announced a strange gentleman to wait upon his honour; and the party whom he thus described entered the room without further ceremony.

'A stranger!' echoed the justice—'not upon business I trust, for I'll be'—

'His protestation was cut short by the answer of the man himself. 'My business is of a nature somewhat onerous and particular,' said my acquaintance Mr. Campbell—for it was he, the very Scotchman whom I had seen at Northallerton—'and I must solicit your honour to give instant and heedful consideration to it.—I believe, Mr. Morris,' he added, fixing his eye on that person with a look of peculiar firmness and almost ferocity—'I believe ye ken brawly what I am—I believe ye cannot have forgotten what passed at our last meeting on the road.' Morris's jaw dropped—his countenance became the colour of tallow—his teeth chattered, and he gave visible signs of the utmost consternation.—'Take heart of grace, man,' said Campbell, 'and dinna sit clattering your jaws there like a pair of castanets. I think there can be nae difficulty in your telling Mr. Justice, that ye have seen me of yore, and ken me to be a cavalier of fortune, and a man of honour. Ye ken fu' weel ye will be some time resident in my vicinity, when I may have the power, as I will possess the inclination, to do ye as good a turn.'

'Sir—sir—I believe you to be a man of honour, and, as you say a man of fortune.—Yes, Mr. Inglewood,' he added, clearing his voice, 'I really believe this gentleman to be so.'

'And what's this gentleman's commands with me?' said the justice,

somewhat peevishly. 'One man introduces another, like the rhymes in the 'house that Jack built,' and I get company without either peace or conversation!'

'Both shall be yours, sir,' answered Campbell, 'in a brief period of time. I come to release your mind from a piece of troublesome duty, not to make increment to it.'

'Body o' me! then you are welcome as ever Scot was to England; but get on man, let's hear what you have got to say at once.'

'I presume this gentleman,' continued the North Briton, 'told you there was a person of the name of Campbell with him, when he had the mischance to lose his valise?'

'He has not mentioned such a name, from beginning to end of the matter,' said the justice.

'Ah! I conceive—I conceive,' replied Mr. Campbell; 'ye were kindly afear'd of committing a stranger into collision with the judicial forms of the country; but as I understand my evidence is necessary to the compurgation of an honest gentleman here, Mr. Francis Osbaldistone, wha has been most unjustly suspected, I will dispense with the precaution—Ye will, therefore, please tell Mr. Justice Inglewood, whether we did not travel several miles together on the road, in consequence of your own anxious request and suggestion, reiterated ance and again, baith on the evening that we were at Northallerton, and there declined by me, but afterwards accepted, when I overtook ye on the road near Clobberly Allers, and was prevailed on by you to resign my ain intentions of proceeding to Rothbury; and, for my misfortune, to accompany you on your proposed route.'

'It's a melancholy truth,' answered Morris, holding down his head, as he gave this general assent to the long and leading question which Campbell put to him, and to which he assented with rueful docility.

'And I presume you can also asseverate to his worship, that no man is better qualified than I am to bear testimony in this case, seeing that I was by you, and near you, constantly during the whole occurrence?'

'No man better qualified, certainly,' said Morris, with a deep and embarrassed sigh.

'And why the devil did you not assist him then,' said the justice, 'since, by Mr. Morris's account, there were but two robbers; so you were two to two, and you are both stout, likely men?'

'Sir, if it please your worship,' said Campbell, 'I have been all my life a man of peace and quietness, no ways given to broils or batteries. Mr. Morris, who belongs, as I understand, or hath belonged, to his Majesty's army, might have used his pleasure in resistance, he travelling, as I understand, with a great charge of treasure; but for me, who had but my own small peculiar to defend, and who am a man of a pacific occupation, I was unwilling to commit myself to hazard in the matter.'

'I looked at Campbell as he uttered these words, and never recollect to have seen a more singular contrast than that between the strong daring sternness expressed in his harsh features, and the air of composed meekness and simplicity which his language assumed. There was even a slight ironical smile lurking about the corners of his mouth, which seemed, involuntarily as it were, to intimate his disdain of the quiet and peaceful character which he thought proper to assume, and which led me to entertain strange suspicions that his concern in the violence done to Morris had been something very different from that of a fellow-sufferer, or even of a mere spectator.

‘Perhaps some such suspicions crossed the Justice’s mind at the moment, for he exclaimed, as if by way of ejaculation, ‘Body o’ me! but this is a strange story.’

‘The North Briton seemed to guess at what was passing in his mind; for he went on, with a change of manner and tone, dismissing from his countenance some part of the hypocritical affectation of humility which had made him obnoxious to suspicion, and saying, with a more frank and unconstrained air, ‘To say the truth, I am just ane o’ these canny folks who care not to fight, but when they hae gotten something to fight for, which did not chance to be my predicament when I fell in wi’ these loons. But, that your worship may know that I am a person of good fame and character, please to cast your eye over that billet.’

‘Mr. Inglewood took the paper from his hand, and read half aloud, ‘These are to certify, that the bearer, Robert Campbell of ——’ ‘Of some place which I cannot pronounce,’ interjected the justice,—‘is a person of good lineage, and peaceable demeanour, travelling towards England on his own proper affairs, &c. &c. &c. Given under our hand, at our Castle of Inver—Invera—rara—ARGYLE.’

‘A slight testimonial, sir, which I thought fit to impetrate from that worthy nobleman, (here he raised his hand to his head, as if to touch his hat,) Mac Callummore.’

‘Mac Callum, who, sir?’ said the Justice.

‘Whom the Southern call the Duke of Argyle.’

‘I know the Duke of Argyle very well to be a nobleman of great worth and distinction, and a true lover of his country. I was one of those that stood by him in 1714, when he unhorsed the Duke of Marlborough out of his command. I wish we had more noblemen like him. He was an honest Tory in those days, and hand and glove with Ormond. And he has acceded to the present government, as I have done myself, for the peace and quiet of his country; for I cannot presume that great man to have been actuated, as violent folks pretend, with the fear of losing his places and regiment. His testimonial, as you call it, Mr. Campbell, is perfectly satisfactory; and now what have you got to say about the robbery?’

‘Briefly this, if it please your worship, that Mr. Morris might as weel charge it against the babe yet to be born, or against myself even, as against this young gentleman, Mr. Osbaldistone; for I am not only free to depone that the person for whom he took him was a shorter man, and a thicker man, but also, for I chanced to obtain a glisk of his visage, as his fause-face slipped aside, that he was a man of other features and complexion than those of this young gentleman, Mr. Osbaldistone. And I believe,’ he added, turning round with a natural, yet somewhat sterner air, to Mr. Morris, ‘that the gentleman will allow I had better opportunity to take cognizance wha were present on that occasion than he, being, I believe, much the cooler o’ the twa.’

‘I agree to it, sir—I agree to it perfectly,’ said Morris, shrinking back, as Campbell moved his chair towards him to fortify his appeal—‘And I incline, sir,’ he added, addressing Mr. Inglewood, ‘to retract my information as to Mr. Osbaldistone; and I request, sir, you will permit him, sir, to go about his business, and me about mine also; your worship may have business to settle with Mr. Campbell, and I am rather in haste to be gone.’

‘Then, there go the declarations,’ said the Justice, throwing them into the fire—‘And now you are at perfect liberty, Mr. Osbaldistone—And you, Mr. Morris, are set quite at your ease.’

‘Ay,’ said Campbell, eyeing Morris as he assented with a rueful grin to the Justice’s observations, ‘much like the ease of a toad under a pair of harrows—But fear nothing, Mr. Morris; you and I maun leave the house thegither. I will see you safe—I hope you will not doubt my honour when I say sae—to the next highway, and then we part company; and if we do not meet as friends in Scotland, it will be your ain fault.’

‘With such a lingering look of terror as the condemned criminal throws, when he is informed that the cart awaits him, Morris arose: but when on his legs appeared to hesitate. ‘I tell thee, man, fear nothing,’ reiterated Campbell; ‘I will keep my word with you—Why, thou sheep’s-heart, how do ye ken but we may can pick up some speerings of your valise, if ye will be amenable to good counsel?—Our horses are ready—Bid the Justice fareweel, man, and show your southern breeding.’

‘Morris, thus exhorted and encouraged, took his leave, under the escort of Mr. Campbell; but, apparently, new scruples and terrors had struck him before they left the house, for I heard Campbell reiterating assurances of safety and protection as they left the anti-room—‘By the soul of my body, man, thou’rt safe as in thy father’s kail-yard—Zounds! that a chield wi’ sic a black beard, should hae nae mair heart than a hen-partridge—Come on wi’ you, like a frank fallow, anes and for aye.’

‘The voice died away, and the subsequent trampling of their horses announced to us that they had left the mansion of Justice Inglewood.

‘The joy which that worthy magistrate received at this easy conclusion of a matter which threatened him with some trouble in his judicial capacity, was somewhat damped by reflection on what his clerk’s views of the transaction might be at his return. ‘Now, I shall have Jobson on my shoulders, about these d—d papers—I doubt I should not have destroyed them after all—But hang it, it is only paying his fees, and that will make all smooth—And now, Miss Die Vernon, though I have liberated all the others, I intend to sign a writ for committing you to the custody of Mother Blakes, my old house-keeper, for the evening, and we will send for my neighbour, Mrs. Musgrave, and the Miss Dawkins, and your cousins, and have old Cobs the fiddler, and be as merry as the maids; and Frank Osbaldistone and I will have a carouse that will make us fit company for you in half an hour.’

‘Thanks, most worshipful,’ returned Miss Vernon; ‘but, as matters stand, we must return instantly to Osbaldistone-Hall, where they do not know what has become of us, and relieve my uncle of his anxiety on my cousin’s account, which is just the same as if one of his own sons were concerned.’

‘I believe it truly,’ said the Justice; ‘for when his eldest son Archie, came to a bad end, in that unlucky affair of Sir John Fenwick’s, old Hildebrand used to hollow out his name as readily as any of the remaining five, and then complain that he could not recollect which of his sons had been hanged. So, pray hasten home, and relieve his paternal solicitude, since go you must.—But, hark thee hither, heath-blossom,’ he said, pulling her towards him by the hand, and in a good-humoured tone of admonition, ‘another time let the law take its course, without putting your pretty finger into her old musty pye, all full of fragments of law-latin—French and dog-latin—And, Dic, my beauty, let young fellows show each other the way through the moors, in case you should lose your own road, while you are pointing out theirs, my pretty Will o’ the Wisp.’

‘With this admonition, he saluted and dismissed Miss Vernon, and took an equally kind farewell of me.

‘Thou seems to be a good tight lad, Mr. Frank, and I remember thy father too---he was my play-fellow at school. Hark thee, lad, ride early at night, and don’t swagger with chance passengers on the king’s highway. What, man! all the king’s liege subjects are not bound to understand joking, and it’s ill cracking jests on matters of felony. And here’s poor *Die Vernon* too---a manner alone and deserted on the face of this wide earth, and left to ride, and run, and scamper at her own silly pleasure. Thou must be careful of *Die*, or egad, I will turn a young fellow again on the purpose, and fight thee myself, although I must own it would be a great deal of trouble. And now, get ye both gone, and leave me to my pipe of tobacco, and my meditations; for what says the song—

‘The Indian leaf doth briefly burn;
So doth man’s strength to weakness turn;—
The fire of youth extinguish’d quite,
Comes age, like embers, dry and white.
Think of this as you take tobacco.’

‘I was much pleased with the gleams of sense and feeling which escaped from the Justice through the vapours of sloth and self-indulgence, assured him of my respect to his admonitions, and took a friendly farewell of the honest magistrate and his hospitable mansion.

‘We found the same servant of sir Hildebrand who had taken our horses at our entrance, and who had been directed, as he informed Miss Vernon, by Mr. Rashleigh, to wait and attend upon us home. We rode a little way in silence, for, to say truth, my mind was too much bewildered with the events of the morning to permit me to be the first to break it. At length Miss Vernon exclaimed, as if giving vent to her own reflections, ‘Well, Rashleigh is a man to be feared and wondered at, and all but loved; he does whatever he pleases, and makes all others his puppets—has a player ready to perform every part which he imagines, and an invention and readiness, which supplies expedients for every emergency.’

‘You think, then,’ said I, answering rather to her meaning, than to the express words she made use of, ‘that this Mr. Campbell, whose appearance was so opportune, and who trussed up and carried off my accuser as a falcon trusses a partridge, was an agent of Mr. Rashleigh Osbaldistone’s?’

‘I do guess as much,’ replied Diana, ‘and shrewdly suspect, moreover, that he would hardly have appeared so very much in the nick of time, if I had not happened to meet Rashleigh in the hall at the justice’s.’

‘In that case, my thanks are chiefly due to you, my fair preserver.’

‘To be sure they are,’ returned Diana; ‘and pray suppose them paid, and accepted with a gracious smile, for I do not care to be troubled with hearing them in good earnest, and am much more likely to yawn than to behave becoming. In short, Mr. Frank, I wished to serve you, and I have fortunately been able to do so, and have only one favour to ask in return, and that is, that you will say no more about it.—But who comes here to meet us, ‘bloody with spurring, fiery-red with haste?’ It is the subordinate man of law, I think, no less than Mr. Joseph Jobson.’

‘And Mr. Joseph Jobson it proved to be, in great haste, and as it spee-

dily appeared, in most extreme bad humour. He came up to us, and stopped his horse, as we were about to pass, with a slight salutation.

‘So, sir—so, Miss Vernon—ay—I see well enough how it is—bail put in during my absence, I suppose—I should like to know who drew the recognizance, that’s all. If his worship uses this form of procedure often, I advise him to get another clerk, that’s all, for I shall certainly demit.’

‘Or suppose he get his present clerk stitched to his sleeve, Mr. Jobson,’ said Diana, ‘would not that do as well? And pray how does farmer Rutledge, Mr. Jobson, I hope you found him able to sign, seal, and deliver?’

‘This question seemed greatly to increase the wrath of the man of law. He looked at Miss Vernon with such an air of spite and resentment, as laid me under a strong temptation to knock him off his horse with the butt of my whip, which I only suppressed in consideration of his insignificance.

‘Farmer Rutledge, ma’am?’ said the clerk, so soon as his indignation permitted him to articulate. ‘Farmer Rutledge is in as handsome enjoyment of his health as you are—it’s all a bam, ma’am—all a bamboozle and a bite, that affair of his illness; and if you did not know as much before, you know it now, ma’am.’

‘La! you there now,’ replied Miss Vernon, with an affectation of extreme and simple wonder, ‘sure you don’t say so, Mr. Jobson?’

‘But I *do* say so, ma’am,’ rejoined the incensed scribe; ‘and moreover I say, that the old miserly clod-breaker called me pettifogger—pettifogger, ma’am—and said I came to hunt for a job, ma’am—which I have no more right to have said to me than any other gentleman of my profession, ma’am—especially as I am clerk to the peace, having and holding said office under *Trigesimo*, *Septimo*, *Henrij Octavi*, and *Primo Gulielmi*—the first of king William, ma’am, of glorious and immortal memory—our immortal deliverer from papists and pretenders, and wooden shoes and warming pans, Miss Vernon.’

‘Sad things, these wooden shoes and warming pans,’ retorted the young lady, who seemed to take pleasure in augmenting his wrath;—‘and it is a comfort you don’t seem to want a warming pan at present, Mr. Jobson. I am afraid Gaffer Rutledge has not confined his incivility to language—Are you sure he did not give you a beating?’

‘Beating, ma’am!—no’—(very shortly)—‘no man alive shall beat me, I promise you, ma’am.’

‘That is according as you happen to merit, sir,’ said I; ‘for your mode of speaking to this young lady is so unbecoming, that if you do not change your tone, I shall think it worth while to chastise you myself.’

‘Chastise, sir! and—me, sir?—Do you know whom you speak to, sir?’

‘Yes, sir,’ I replied; ‘you say yourself you are clerk of peace to the county; and Gaffer Rutledge says you are a pettifogger; and in neither capacity are you entitled to be impertinent to a young lady of fashion.’

‘Miss Vernon laid her hand on my arm, and exclaimed, ‘Come, Mr. Osbaldistone, I will have no assaults and battery on Mr. Jobson. I am not in sufficient charity with him to permit a single touch of your whip—why, he would live on it for a term at least. Besides, you have already hurt his feelings sufficiently—you have called him impertinent.’

‘I don’t value his language, Miss,’ said the clerk, somewhat crest-fallen; ‘besides, impertinent is not an actionable word; but pettifogger is slander in the highest degree, and that I will make Gaffer Rutledge know to his cost, and all who maliciously repeat the same to the breach of the public peace, and the taking away of my private good name.’

‘Never mind that, Mr. Jobson,’ said Miss Vernon; ‘you know, where there is nothing, your own law allows that the king himself must lose his rights; and, for the taking away of your good name, I pity the poor fellow who gets it, and wish you joy of losing it with all my heart.’

‘Very well, ma’am---good evening, ma’am---I have no more to say---only there are laws against papists, which it would be well for the land were they better executed. There’s third and fourth Edward VI., of antiphoners, missalls, grailles, processions, manuals, legends, pies, portuasses, and those that have such trinkets in their possession, Miss Vernon---and there’s summoning of papists to take the oaths---and there are popish recusant convicts under the first of his present majesty---ay, and there are penalties for hearing mass. See twenty-third Queen Elizabeth; and third James First, chapter twenty-fifth.---And there are estates to be registered, and deeds and wills to be enrolled, and double taxes to be made, according to the acts in that case made and provided’—

‘See the new edition of the Statutes at Large, published under the careful revision of Joseph Jobson, Gent., Clerk of the Peace,’ said Miss Vernon.

‘Also, and above all,’ continued Jobson,---‘for I speak to your warning---you, Diana Vernon, spinstress, not being a femme covert; and being a convict popish recusant, are bound to repair to your own dwelling, and that by the nearest way, under penalty of being held felon to the king---and diligently to seek for passage at common ferries, and to tarry there but one ebb and flood; and unless you can have it in such places, to walk every day into the water up to the knees, assaying to pass over.’

‘A sort of protestant penance for my catholic errors, I suppose,’ said Miss Vernon, laughing. ‘Well, I thank you for the information, Mr. Jobson, and will hie me home as fast as I can, and be a better house-keeper in time coming. Good night, my dear Mr. Jobson, thou mirror of clerical courtesy.’

‘Good night, ma’am---and remember the law is not to be trifled with.’

‘And we rode on our separate ways.’

Happily extricated from the fangs of *qui tam* and *replevin*, Francis returns to Osbaldistone-Hall, lost in conjecture on the events of the day, for the whole wears an appearance of design and mystery which time alone is to unravel. *Chapter X.* opens with a detailed account of the state of the library at the Hall, a room that now became the peculiar resort of Francis, increased perhaps in some degree, from the circumstance of Diana Vernon devoting to its treasures, *nocte dieque*, her late and early hours.

‘In the wide pile by others heeded not,
Hers was one sacred solitary spot,
Whose gloomy aisles and bending shelves contain,
For moral hunger food, and cures for moral pain.

‘The library at Osbaldistone Hall was a gloomy room, whose antique oaken shelves bent beneath the weight of the ponderous folios so dear to the seventeenth century, from which, under favour be it spoken, we

have distilled matter for our quartos and octavos, and which, once more subjected to the alembic, may, should our sons be yet more frivolous than ourselves, be still farther reduced into duodecimos and pamphlets. The collection was chiefly of the classics as well foreign as ancient history, and, above all, divinity. It was in wretched order. The priests, who, in succession, had acted as chaplains at the Hall, were, for many years, the only persons who entered its precincts, until Rashleigh's thirst of reading had led him to disturb the venerable spiders, who had muffled the fronts of the presses with their tapestry. His early destination for the church rendered his conduct less absurd in his father's eyes, than if any of his other descendants had betrayed so strange a propensity, and Sir Hildebrand acquiesced in the room's receiving some repairs, so as to fit it for a sitting apartment. Still an air of dilapidation, as obvious as it was uncomfortable, pervaded the large apartment, and announced the neglect, from which the knowledge which its walls contained, had not been able to exempt it. The tattered tapestry, the worm-eaten shelves, the huge and clumsy, yet tottering tables, desks and chairs, the rusty grate, seldom gladdened by either sea-coal or faggots, intimated the contempt of the lords of Osbaldistone-Hall for learning, and the volumes which record its treasures.

'You think this place somewhat disconsolate, I suppose?' said Diana, as I glanced my eye round the forlorn apartment; 'but to me it seems like a little paradise, for I call it my own, and fear no intrusion. Rashleigh was joint proprietor with me, while we were friends.'

'And are you no longer so?' was my natural question. 'We are still *allies*,' she continued, 'bound like other confederate powers, by circumstances of mutual interest, but I am afraid, as will happen in other cases, the treaty of alliance has survived the amicable dispositions in which it had its origin. At any rate, we live less together, and when he comes through that door there, I vanish through this door here; and so, having made the discovery that we two were one too many for this apartment, as large as it seems, Rashleigh, whose occasions frequently call him elsewhere, has generously made a cession of his rights in my favour; so that I now endeavour to prosecute alone the studies in which he used formerly to be my guide.'

'And what are those studies, if I may presume to ask?'

'Science and history are my principal favourites; but I also study poetry and the classics.'

'And the classics! do you read them in the original?'

'Unquestionably. Rashleigh, who is no contemptible scholar, taught me Greek and Latin, as well as most of the languages of modern Europe.'

After this beautiful view of female instruction we have the exterior manners of Rashleigh thus depicted.

'More learned than soundly wise—better acquainted with men's minds than with the moral principles that ought to regulate them, he had still powers of conversation which I have rarely seen equalled, never excelled. Of this his manner implied some consciousness; at least, it appeared to me that he had studied hard to improve his natural advantages of a melodious voice, fluent and happy expression, apt language and fervid imagination. He was never loud, never overbearing, never so much occupied with his own thoughts, as to outrun either the patience or the comprehension of those he conversed with. His ideas succeed-

ed each other with the gentle but unintermitting flow of a plentiful and bounteous spring; while I have heard those of others, who aimed at distinction in conversation, rush along like the turbid gush from the sluice of a mill-pond, as hurried and as early exhausted. It was late at night ere I could part from a companion so fascinating; and, when I gained my own apartment, it cost me no small effort to recal to my mind the character of Rashleigh, such as I had pictured him previous to this tête-à-tête. So effectually, my dear Tresham, does the sense of being pleased and amused blunt our faculties of perception and discrimination of character, that I can only compare it to the taste of certain fruits, at once luscious and poignant, which renders our palate totally unfit for relishing or distinguishing the viands which are subsequently subjected to its criticism.'

The adventures of a visit protracted for many reasons, furnish much to recount. Rashleigh's true character, in the course of it, becomes more and more developed. He had long been endeavouring to acquire an ascendancy over the mind of his fair pupil, for purposes not unusual where prescribed celibacy seems but an incentive to illicit indulgence, till a discovery of his views had aroused her pride and estranged their intercourse. The jealousy that arises out of the visible attachment of Francis to Diana Vernon, and the suspicion on the part of Rashleigh that the tenor of his conduct to her had been represented in the course of their frequent private meetings, fill up the tactical scenes that ensue on each side, the one evidently endeavouring to preserve what countenance he might, though foiled; the other to use the vantage ground he had gained in the affections of the lovely Diana, with that skill and address which should best preserve it.

'Considering, my dear Tresham, how very unpleasant on many accounts a prolonged residence at Osbaldistone-Hall must have been to a young man at my age, and with my habits, it might have seemed very natural that I should have pointed out all these disadvantages to my father, in order to obtain his consent for leaving my uncle's mansion. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that I did not say a single word to this purpose in my letters to my father and Owen. If Osbaldistone-Hall had been Athens in all its pristine glory and learning, and inhabited by sages, heroes and poets, I could not have experienced less inclination to leave it.

'If thou hast any of the salt of youth left in thee, Tresham, thou wilt be at no loss to account for my silence on a topic seemingly so obvious. Miss Vernon's extreme beauty, of which she herself seemed so little conscious,—her romantic and mysterious situation;—the evils to which she was exposed,—the courage with which she seemed to face them,—her manners, more frank than belonged to her sex, yet, as it seemed to me, exceeding in frankness only from the dauntless consciousness of her innocence,—above all, the obvious and flattering distinction which she made in my favour over all other persons, were at once calculated to interest my best feelings, to excite my curiosity, awaken my imagination, and gratify my vanity. I dared not indeed confess to myself the depth of the interest with which Miss Vernon inspired me, or the large share which she occupied in my thoughts: we read together, walked together, rode together, and sate together. The studies which she had

broken off upon her quarrel with Rashleigh, she now resumed under the auspices of a tutor whose views were more sincere, though his capacity was far more limited.

‘In truth, I was by no means qualified to assist her in the prosecution of several profound studies which she had commenced with Rashleigh, and which appeared to me more fitted for a churchman than for a beautiful female. Neither can I conceive with what view he should have engaged Diana in the gloomy maze of the casuistry which schoolmen called philosophy, or in the equally abstruse, though more certain sciences of mathematics and astronomy; unless it were to break down and confound in her mind the difference and distinction between the sexes, and to habituate her to trains of subtle reasoning, by which he might at his own time invest that which was wrong with the colour of that which is right. It was in the same spirit, though in the latter case the evil purpose was more obvious, that the lessons of Rashleigh had encouraged Miss Vernon in setting at naught and despising the forms and ceremonial limits which are drawn round females in modern society. It is true she was sequestered from all female company, and could not learn the usual rules of decorum, either from example or precept. Yet such was her innate modesty, and accurate sense of what was right and wrong, that she would not of herself have adopted the bold uncompromising manner which struck me with so much surprise on our first acquaintance, had she not been led to conceive, that a contempt of ceremony indicted at once superiority of understanding, and the confidence of conscious innocence. Her wily instructor had, no doubt, his own views in levelling those outworks which reserve and caution erect around virtue. But for these, and for his other crimes, he has long since answered at a higher tribunal.

‘Besides the progress which Miss Vernon, whose powerful mind readily adopted every means of information offered to it, had made in more abstract science, I found her no contemptible linguist, and well acquainted both with ancient and modern literature. Were it not that strong talents will often go farthest when they seem to have least assistance, it would be almost incredible to tell the rapidity of Miss Vernon’s progress in knowledge; and it was still more extraordinary, when her stock of mental acquisitions from books was compared with her total ignorance of actual life. It seemed as if she saw and knew every thing, except what passed in the world around her, and I believe it was this very ignorance and simplicity of thinking upon ordinary subjects, so strikingly contrasted with her fund of general knowledge and information, which rendered her conversation so irresistibly fascinating, and rivetted the attention to whatever she said or did; since it was absolutely impossible to anticipate whether her next word or action was to display the most acute perception, or the most profound simplicity. The degree of danger which necessarily attended a youth of my age and keen feelings from remaining in close and constant intimacy with an object so amiable, and so peculiarly interesting, all who remember their own sentiments at my age may easily estimate.’

Never was affection better grounded, better traced through its proper springs, or more exquisitely told, than in this part of the story; and how greatly does it distance in effect, though simple of tale, the sentimental effusions of over-strained hyperbolical rhapsody.

sody, so frequently put by bad writers into the mouths of too sensitive lovers.

In the fourteenth chapter a garden scene occurs, and Andrew Fairservice, the old Scotch gardener, in the broad dialect of his country, again agreeably relieves graver matters in the mind of Francis, by a humorous and satirical allusion to the practice of a certain great house (the house of parliament in England) which it is well known oftentimes entertains minor concerns in serious debate, when they ought to be discussing others far more worthy of their time and consideration. The affair of the robbery of Morris, the king's messenger, it appears by his information, derived from a travelling pedlar (the principal vehicles of intelligence in those early times) had been the subject of their investigation and examination at the bar of the house. As certain persons of the obnoxious party, then in opposition, were believed to be in some degree implicated, the affair had been handled on both sides as a touchstone to ascertain the temper of the members. The duke of Argyle, whose family name is Campbell, and whom the Campbells to the hundredth generation to this day pretend to claim as a common ancestor, is represented in the true colours of family pride, according to the ancient spirit of claniship, as exculpating one Campbell, a supposed accomplice, on the ground that the honour of a Campbell was not to be impeached on the *ipse dixit* of a man contradictory, as the messenger appears to have been, in his evidence, from a cross-examination unusually severe. The Toryism of the Jacobites, or adherents of James, the etymology of which word we trace, for the benefit of such as have forgotten their Latin rudiments, to *Jacobus*, the Latin appellation of James, and the Whiggism of the ministry under king Willie (as he is called, p. 66) struggled in the controversy; and the latter appear not to have possessed sufficient strength, at that period of unconfirmed principles, to establish the charge, which, of course fell to the ground. This Campbell was the same Scot whom Francis, on his journey down to the North, fell in with at the inn upon the road, in company with Morris, and from the circumstance of his being provided with a certificate of good character from the duke of Argyle, and his opportunely appearing as the testimony in favour of Francis, at the examination before the justice, there is every reason to conclude, taking other circumstances into view, that the robbery was, in some degree, a political concern of those days, in which the Catholic Jacobites were involved. The shadow of guilt is made to reflect upon Francis by the contrivance of his cousin Rashleigh, evidently privy to the plot, by his equivocal conduct throughout the proceedings; with a view, no doubt, if it should settle on an Osbaldistone, that it might be best met and parried by one whose father, as a monied whig of those days, had most interest with the court; or not improbably, as consistent with his known Machiavelian policy, to ruin him, the only obstacle in the road to possession of the rich uncle's fortune.

The wily Rashleigh, it appears, had early commenced his deep laid schemes of iniquity. Francis discovered all his letters to his father to have been intercepted by the artifices of that dangerous character; and in no long time received advice, that, profiting by the absence of the head of the firm on business in Holland, Rashleigh had absconded with a considerable sum intended to take up certain bills at Glasgow. Francis loses no time in repairing to that city, with a view to meet the head clerk, Owen, who was despatched to arrange matters with a Scotch house relative to these affairs, and, with Andrew Fairservice for his guide, who profited by the occasion to elope with a favourite nag of the young squire's in full of debt due, for money lent said squire last races, proceeded with all haste to the place of destination. The description of a Sabbath in Scotland is a most faithful picture, drawn with singular originality and precision. It was Sunday, and whilst engaged in listening to the discourse of the preacher at one of the principal churches, a voice whispered into the ear of Francis to take care of himself, for that his life was in danger, and bids him meet an unknown friend at a sequestered spot adjacent to the city. With this Francis, punctual to the hour appointed, complies, and, after assurance passed of confidence, is led by the mysterious stranger, under a promise of introducing to him a prisoner, from whose lips he is to learn the risk in which he stood, within the confines of the jail of Glasgow. Owen is the tenant of the prison house, whom he was to visit—a melancholy instance of the uncertainty of commercial hopes!

With this concludes the first volume.

To such as have not had an opportunity of making themselves acquainted with the events in the history of Scotland before that country became an integral part of the British empire, many of the transactions and allusions in the second volume will seem, without elucidation, somewhat unintelligible, as the tales of one that utters a strange tongue. For the necessary illustration we refer our readers to the 130th and 241st pages of our present volume, where an account, supposed to be written by Walter Scott, is given of Rob Roy Macgregor and some branches of his clan. To these we shall add a very few particulars, in order to supply information where it seems deficient, leaving those who feel curious to pursue farther the details of those times, to Robertson's History of Scotland, and Malcolm Laing's work on the same subject. A people singularly primitive and original in their government and manners, as Frank Osbaldistone describes them, have, in the principal features of their character, something common to all tribes in the pastoral state of society, whom luxury and refinement have not enervated, and the nearest idea that furnishes any analogy to that we are contemplating, presents itself in the descriptions of the aborigines of this country. In so far as it tends to show the identity of those habits and principles which mark the early and rude stages of society, the contrast is curious, and not without instruction. Great and wholesome virtues, amid noxious weeds, have

their root even in the most uncultivated soils. The feudal times prevailed to a later period in the Highlands of Scotland than in any other part of the island, by which a spirit of clanship was preserved that tended to unite the inhabitants of those districts under the banners of their respective warrior chiefs. To these an implicit obedience was invariably yielded, and at their summons, all such as were capable of bearing arms were required to assemble, completely equipped and accoutred, with a broadsword, target, dagger, and fire-arms, to the sound of that popular tune, "The gathering of the clans." Each clan was generally composed of kindred, bearing the same name, from the nearest to the remotest degree of affinity, for one clan or tribe rarely intermarried with another, so that an effect resulted in preserving a remarkable distinction of features, to such degree, that a Fraser may, to this day, at first sight, be distinguished from a Munro, a Maclean from a Macdonald, by any one accustomed to the Highland character. He was the greatest chieftain, or laird (to use the modern more peaceful appellation) who could bring the largest number of followers into the field. Heroic ardour, and, on all occasions, unlimited fidelity and devotion to the will of the chief, was to the Highlander of yore, the first law of infancy and the confirmed habit of manhood. This peculiarity the reader will find strongly marked in the character of Dougal, a faithful adherent of the Macgregor, a style applied by Highlanders to their chiefs, in order to convey, by the use of the definite article, an idea of distinction and superiority. The clan Macgregor appears to have been the most daring and persevering in its opposition to the English sway, till long after the union of the two kingdoms, on which account, as well as for a known attachment to the catholic or James's party, it was at one time proscribed. Of late years the British government has wisely adopted the policy of forming these clans into Highland regiments, and incorporating them with the military establishment of the empire; and it is but just to observe that on every occasion they have greatly distinguished themselves, no less by their conduct in the field than by the strictness of their discipline, and the regularity of their deportment. The chiefs have been raised to military dignities and honours, and thus, by gradual measures of substitution, as well as positive enactments, all vestiges of that system have disappeared, in which a dangerous power was permitted to reside in arbitrary hands. Order now reigns throughout the Highland districts, and a most valuable description of troops has been drawn from them in aid of the resources of the realm. The gallant Sir Gregor Macgregor, who acknowledges the same clan as Rob Roy, and whose exertions have been so ably devoted to the great cause of South American independence, is now co-operating, in a like struggle, though on a different theatre, to that which signalized his sires.

Defended by her clans, Scotland, amid all the distractions of her early history, and the later depopulation of her glens, never was conquered. The Romans, who gave to the country the name

of Caledonia, (see Tacitus, de Vitâ Agric.) while they penetrated along the borders of the sea coast, were compelled to relinquish all attempts upon the strong holds and fastnesses into which their opponents retired, and where it was certain destruction to follow.

We have thought it necessary to premise thus much, in order to render the temper and genius of the people upon whom so considerable a portion of attention is bestowed in the course of the second volume, sufficiently familiar to our readers, and shall now resume the thread of the narrative.

With a view to disconcert the machinations of Rashleigh, Francis Osbaldistone is protected by his tutelary genius, Rob Roy, who, at the instance of Diana Vernon, and her concealed father, watches over all his steps, and is by him led into an apartment of the prison where he finds poor old Owen, head clerk of his father's house. Owen, it appears, having a small share in the firm, and therefore liable for its debts, was arrested at the suit of certain correspondents in Glasgow, as soon as the embarrassment was discovered, who insisted upon an immediate deposit of assets to cover their acceptances, and, for want of bail, he was imprisoned. The conductor of this interview was an unknown, but, by his own confession, an extraordinary and dangerous character; accomplishing it, as he said, at no ordinary risk of his own person. He had calculated upon making good his retreat without observation, through the agency of the faithful Dougal, who, coming to Glasgow to seek employment, had procured the situation of turnkey, probably under management in those times, in order to favour the escape of sinning Highlanders. Baillie, or, as we should say, alderman Jarvie, a correspondent, happening to call upon the distressed Owen at an unusually late hour, past 12 on a Sunday night, (religious scruples preventing him from inspecting his leger before) intercepted Rob, and, causing the prison doors to be shut, threatened to deliver him into the hands of justice. Rob, appealing to his kinsman, for such the Baillie turns out to be, (his mother having been a Macgregor) and promising to settle a debt long due from him to the Baillie, succeeds by his artful eloquence and temptations, in persuading the magistrate to allow his departure in the same capacity as he had entered, a voluntary visiter. The power of clan-ship, always great, prevails, and Rob gives important information respecting the embezzled property. The business of the Baillie was to console poor Owen, as well as to investigate the state of affairs, and, in the fulness of a good heart, as far as might be prudent, to afford relief. The detention, it appears, is for want of bail for his appearance, which is speedily supplied by the worthy alderman, whereupon he is released, and enabled to attend to the affairs of the house. The embezzled property in bills is traced to the possession of certain Highland chiefs, and it is determined to avail of the powerful influence of Rob Roy in effecting the recovery of them. With this view, the Baillie, never backward in a good cause, and Francis Osbaldistone set out on horseback for the country of the Macgregors. The road is described, and a Highland tavern scene, where

a fray takes place, in which, as usual, the Highlanders, inflamed with whiskey, are committed against the gentlemen from the southward, for, as the poet says,

“ An iron race the mountain cliffs maintain,
Foes to the gentler genius of the plain.”

The interposition of a looker on, who afterwards proves to be Dougal, terminates the affair without any serious consequences, and the party are permitted quietly to take up their abode in the house for the night.

On the following morning a detachment of king's troops enters the tavern in search of Rob Roy and others connected with him, and in the execution of orders to arrest all persons found on the spot, march off the Baillie, Osbaldistone, Andrew Fairservice, his newly appointed groom, and Dougal. The latter is compelled to act as guide to the haunts of the Macgregors, and contrives to lead them purposely into a defile where the detachment is met, dispersed, and captured by a band of Highlanders, among which Helen, Rob Roy's wife, is conspicuous. Whilst captives among the hills, news is brought that Rob himself had been surprised by a party of militia, supposed to have been betrayed by Morris, who fell, by some means, into the hands of the Macgregors, and, according to the vindictive ferocity of those times, when revenge was held honourable, is thrown into a neighbouring lake and drowned. At length Osbaldistone is released, after establishing his innocence, though found in such company, and is suffered to depart, the Baillie being detained, with the commanding officer of the party, taken prisoner, as hostages for the security of Rob Roy. On repairing to the nearest post, Osbaldistone finds Rob in custody of a body of cavalry, from which he contrives to escape whilst in the act of crossing a ford on the march, eluding their search by diving down the stream. About this time, Osbaldistone unexpectedly falls in with Diana Vernon, who had been called to accompany her father to the Highlands upon some secret negotiations, and from her hands he receives a packet which Rashleigh had been compelled to give up, containing the property in search of which the perilous adventure had been undertaken. That privacy which the nature of the schemes at that time on foot in Scotland for the restoration of the Stuarts required, imposed the necessity of her limiting her presence to a short interview, and Francis is left to muse upon the extraordinary occurrence of her presence, and unremitting guardianship over his interests; he next seeks the worthy Baillie, who is safe with his kinswoman, Rob's wife; Rob had arrived before him, and the recollection of past misfortunes now merges in the hospitalities of a Highland banquet. The news of the recovery of the assets, is received by the Baillie with all the joy that was to be expected from the interest he had manifested in the search. Next day Rob forwards his friends on their road back to Glasgow, and Frank has the happiness, on his arrival, of meeting his father, who had joined Owen, and succeeded in arranging the affairs of the house to their complete satisfaction. The Baillie

is appointed sole correspondent of Osbaldistone & Co. in reward of his meritorious exertions on their behalf; and the other house, who had justly incensed their former friends by imprisoning Owen, were informed, on being paid the balance of their account, that, with all its numerous contingent advantages, that leaf of their ledger was closed for ever! Taking leave of Glasgow, and its worthy magistrate, the travellers now bent their way towards London. The rebellion of 1715 broke about this time, and the Highlanders

“Pour’d like a torrent down upon the vales.”

Sir Hildebrand Osbaldistone, with his sons, and the principal catholic families in the north of England, joined the standard of revolt. The cause terminated unsuccessfully, as the reader will find in English history, and although the rebel army penetrated into Lancashire, yet that was the *ultimum* of their advance. One of Sir Hildebrand’s sons fell in the struggle, another received a mortal wound, three others died—the one killed in a duel, another from inebriation, and a third by a fall from his horse. Sir Hildebrand himself being taken prisoner, with several leaders of the conspiracy, is lodged in a state prison, where he soon after dies. In his will, Rashleigh had been excluded from all share of inheritance in favour of his other children, with remainder to his nephew, and these being now deceased, the nephew’s title is clear; whereupon Francis goes down to take possession. In this Rashleigh attempts to supplant him, and by stratagem contrives to have issued a warrant for the apprehension of Sir Frederick Vernon, Diana’s father, who had taken refuge at the hall, and of Francis Osbaldistone, for harbouring and concealing a traitor. The warrant is served by the infamous Jobson, but as he and Rashleigh were in the act of conveying away their prisoners, attended by peace officers, Rob Roy with a body of Highlanders, being then in that part of the country, and learning the intentions of Rashleigh, effects a rescue; Rashleigh is shot in the scuffle; and peaceable entry is made by the undisputed heir of Osbaldistone Hall. Diana and her father were conducted safe beyond the reach of enemies by the intrepid Rob, and embark for France, where the fair damsel is placed in a convent; her father dying soon after, she becomes the wife of Frank Osbaldistone.

“I candidly explained,” says Frank, “the state of my affections to my father, who was not a little startled at the idea of my marrying a Roman Catholic. But he was very desirous to see me “settled in life,” as he called it; and he was sensible that, in joining him with heart and hand in his commercial labours, I had sacrificed my own inclinations. After a brief hesitation, and several questions asked, and answered to his satisfaction, he broke out with—“I little thought a son of mine should have been Lord of Osbaldistone Manor, and far less that he should go to a French convent for a spouse. But so dutiful a daughter cannot but prove a good wife. You have worked at the desk to please me, Frank; it is but fair you should wive to please yourself.”

‘How I sped in my wooing, Will Tresham, I need not tell you. You know, too, how long and happily I lived with Diana. You know how I

lamented her. But you do not—cannot know how much she deserved her husband's sorrow.

‘I have no more of romantic adventure to tell, nor indeed any thing to communicate farther, since the latter incidents of my life are so well known to one who has shared, with the most friendly sympathy, the joys, as well as the sorrows, by which its scenes have been chequered. I often visited Scotland, but never again saw the bold Highlander who had such an influence on the early events of my life. I learned, however, from time to time, that he continued to maintain his ground among the mountains of Loch Lomond, in despite of his powerful enemies, and that he even obtained, to a certain degree, the connivance of government to his self-elected office of Protector of the Lennox, in virtue of which he levied black-mail* with as much regularity as the proprietors did their ordinary rents. It seemed impossible that his life should have concluded without a violent end. Nevertheless, he died in old age, and by a peaceful death, sometime about the year 1736, and is still remembered in his country as the Robin Hood of Scotland, the dread of the wealthy, but the friend of the poor, and possessed of many qualities, both of head and heart, which would have graced a less equivocal profession than that to which his fate condemned him.

‘Old Andrew Fairservice, whom you may recollect as gardener at Osbaldistone Hall, used to say, that ‘there were many things owre bad for blessing, and owre gude for banning, like ROB ROY.’

We have thought it necessary to detain our readers whilst, in compliance with custom, we traced this rapid outline of the principal events of the narrative, which may serve to elucidate and connect many points that otherwise might appear less clearly in the main: but, in order to form a just idea of the merits of the original, it must be read, and we venture to think time not ill employed in the perusal. The author is a Scotchman, and subjects of Scottish history evidently are his favourites; there is besides, a simplicity, a native originality conveyed in the use of that language in appropriate situations, which greatly assist the effect sought to be produced, yet we must regret in some measure, that he did not consult more a Southern ear; for, independently of his writing with exemplary purity throughout his English style, and his perfect powers in any exigency, without recourse to Scotland, it must be acknowledged that his first volume has charms superior to those of the second, in the estimation of all perhaps excepting those born north of the Tweed. As strangers to the vernacular idiom of Scotland, excepting inasmuch as a love of the works of the inimitable Burns can be said to improve the acquaintance—an idiom now become almost obsolete, we should have more reason to regret this locality of incident and of dialect, were not such the happy versatility of the author's genius, such his faculty of domiciliating even the most foreign and far-fetched allusions, that we are almost as prone to admire him in his rude Highland garb, as in the more

* *Black-mail* was an arbitrary tax levied by freebooters, until suppressed by legislative interference, being extorted as the price of their own lenity, and under the promise of protecting those who paid it, from the depredations of other plundering parties, from whom they also engaged to recover whatever booty was carried away. See page 121 of this volume, and for a more particular explanation, the glossary.

elegant attire of highly civilized life. On all occasions, he displays man and nature in their diversified shapes, and under every modification, place and circumstance, in characters not the less easily recognized for the wildness, the rusticity, or the urbanity of the situation. The magic of his pen gives interest to scenes the most estranged from us, and strews the uninviting way with flowers.

“*Nihil quod tetigit non ornavit.*”

But he addresses himself more particularly to the understandings and feelings of his countrymen, who alone can enter fully into the peculiar application and force of many of the passages, not only from a more perfect apprehension of their signification, but also of those operations and energies with which the use of them is associated. To supply the defect of a glossary in the original, the publisher has procured one, drawn up by a native of Scotland, resident in this city, which has materially assisted us, on a perusal of the second edition, in unravelling many intricacies which we were exposed to in the first.

What we have had reason most to admire in the author's manner, is the pleasing and natural description of the objects he presents to the reader; for instance, in Frank's interview with his father on his return from Bordeaux, we seem to have a perfect picture of the old gentleman tying up his letters with a piece of red tape, and of Owen no less busy. Again, in the hunting scene, what painter could better have employed contrast than in placing a fair damsel on a jet black hunter, the snow-white foam falling in flakes upon the bright sides of the animal and embossing the bridle? besides a multitude of similar resemblances, for the detail of which we have not space. We ought also to notice among the author's merits his good taste, as well as the solidity and value of his purposes, in choosing to illustrate historical events by their effects upon individual character. It is an agreeable way undoubtedly of letting the reader into the facts of those times, on which indeed the narrative sheds no small light, and probably enticing him to look farther, by winning him, as it were, to the acquaintance. It is on this ground that we estimate the value of the author, as the founder of a new school, far above all those dealers in mere fiction, whose reveries, however dazzling to the imagination,

“—like the baseless fabric of a vision”

leave but an airy and confused impression behind. The ingenuity and fulness with which characters are educed, is another striking feature of the book, from which we cannot withhold our approbation. Every expression of sentiment that is necessary to a perfect developement of views, and of conduct, with their effects, falls into its appointed place with the ease and address of natural existence, and this minute attention to the due exposition of motives and actions, has enabled the author to surmount and reconcile seeming

improbabilities, with which, it must be admitted, some of his circumstances are chargeable.

“ ——— ita mentitur, sic veris falsa remiscet,
Primo ne medium, medio ne discrepet inum.”

Nor is it the least of praise, that there is no part in which a *caveat* can be wanting to the chastest ear, no vestige of impure combinations, such as we find insinuating their meretricious appeals to passion even into the popular pages of *Tom Jones*, of *Pamela*, *Clarissa*, and, not excepting the good *Vicar of Wakefield*.

We would not be understood however, as lavishing an indiscriminate praise where not entirely deserved, and it is with a guarded qualification of his intended inferences that we receive the aristocratical lessons, scarcely to be mistaken, discoverable in more than one place*—lessons, adapted no doubt to serve a purpose, and which, though they may not avail to repress discontent and tumult in the country described, at least may harmlessly work the author's way into the notice and patronage of the powers that be.

But we have no objection to all this being placed to the account of patriotism, and should have been disposed to omit the task of animadversion altogether, did not a more weighty consideration appear to claim notice, one which it is to be hoped will not escape the author's observation ere he again appears before the public. His propensity to surprise by unexpected presences, and to produce effect by extraordinary and striking interpositions, have too much of magical appearance, by leaning greatly too far to the unlikely. That *Andrew Fairservice*, in a good situation by his own account, a *Scotchman* too, should relinquish it in the manner he did, to follow the fortunes of a young wanderer, without further evidence of secure advantage, is conduct scarcely becoming an apprentice tired of his trade. But we allude more especially to the appearance of *Rob Roy*, *alias Campbell*, at the justice's before *Morris*, in robbing whom he was concerned—his subsequent attendance at *Glasgow*, through the romantic agency of *Miss Vernon*,—his venturesome entrance into the jail with *Francis*, when the mention of *Owen* being there would have sufficed,—the talismanic packet of the young damsel,—*Frank's* rencontre with *Rashleigh* at *Glasgow*, and the presence of *Morris* just before—hence his participation in *Rashleigh's* designs,—the interviews or rather glimpses that pass between *Frank Osbaldistone* and *Diana Vernon* in the *Highlands*, and again, the convenient and seasonable presence of *Rob* with his herd of cattle at the gate of *Osbaldistone Hall* when *Sir Frederick Vernon* is in jeopardy: all these, notwithstanding their connexion, design, and bearing may be traced and accounted for, still seem overstrained in application, and not easy to adjust satisfactorily in the mind.

Quodcunque ostendas mihi sic incredulus odi.

We do not say that these points are not well cleared up, only it is a perfection in works of this kind when little mental effort is re-

* Vide chapter xvi. vol. 2. passim.

quired in doing so, and the less doubt that is started, the more graceful and flowing the narrative.

It is with regret that this disposition *ad captandum* is perceived in so distinguished a writer—a recourse to the critical and wonderful in circumstance, by which weak minds are moved. Let any one attentively consider the dialogue between Baillie Jarvie and Rob Roy in Glasgow jail, and he will not fail to remark a forced strain of discourse, the argument bent to exhibit design, instead of flowing naturally and easily from premises; beyond these, a love of the ludicrous is pursued too far in dwelling too long upon the Baillie's suspension in mid-air, while scrambling down the Highland rocks, a theme repeated oftener than fitting to please such as do not take delight in trifles; in fine, as a specimen, nearly the whole of the following extract.

‘Ye’re mad, Rob,’ said the Baillie—‘mad as a March hare,—though wherefore a hare suld be mad at March mair than at Martinmas, is mair than I can weel say. Weavers! Deil shake ye out o’ the web the weaver craft made. Spinners!—ye’ll spin and wind yourself a bonnie pirn. And this young birkie here, that ye’re hoying and hounding on the shortest road to the gallows and the deevil, will his stage-plays and his poetries help him here, dy’e think, ony mair than your deep oaths and drawn dirks, ye reprobate that ye are?—Will *Tityre tu patule*, as they ca’ it, tell him where Rashleigh Osbaldistone is? or Macbeth, and all his kernes and galla-glasses, and your awn to boot, Rob, procure him five thousand pounds to answer the bills which fall due ten days hence, were they a’ roused at the Cross, basket-hilts, Andra-Ferraras, leather targets, brogues, brochan and sporrans?’

‘Ten days?’ I answered, and instinctively drew out Diana Vernon’s packet; and the time being elapsed during which I was to keep the seal sacred, I hastily broke it open. A sealed letter fell from a blank enclosure, owing to the trepidation with which I opened the parcel. A slight current of wind, which found its way through a broken pane of the window, wafted the letter to Mr. Jarvie’s feet, who lifted it, examined the address with unceremonious curiosity, and, to my astonishment, handed it to his Highland kinsman, saying, ‘Here’s a wind has blown a letter to its right owner, though there were ten thousand chances against its coming to hand.’

Making due reservation for objections to some of the features of the plot, and allowance for evident marks of precipitation in the course of the second volume, there are so many passages of exquisite beauty in the first, such just and apposite sentiments throughout, ranging through all walks of life, of business, and of society, that it is not too much to say, no publication of late years supplies equal knowledge of men and manners,—an acquaintance with the world in a few hours, amounting often to the collected experience of years. The forms of society there represented are new to us, though not less necessary to be known and understood. He is no friend to the enlargement of the boundaries of intelligence and civilization, who would deny to observation the full exercise of its powers. Few countries possess so little of value in their internal complexion, in all the little charities of human life, from which

nothing useful can be gleaned. It is the part of wisdom to consult those sources of information which furnish new ideas, extending beyond its own, nor are examples superfluous in reflecting the manners of a country and a people; whilst the mind is agreeably and profitably exercised in separating their good qualities from the blemishes that disfigure them. On these grounds we do not hesitate to recommend the volumes before us.

And now as to the author, hitherto veiled in impenetrable mystery—the rightful claimant of this string of honours,* one man, and but one is capable of producing such a work, known as the author to but a very few, and that by inference, yet irresistible to the mind of our informant, who is acquainted with the family of that individual. To a Reverend Doctor, once the colleague of the celebrated Blair in the High Church, and his successor in the professorship of Rhetoric and Belles Letters in the University of Edinburgh, the merit properly belongs—his name Greenfield, his present situation that of obscurity. Circumstances of a confidential nature, require that it should be so. The public sympathy would participate warmly in his interests and his feelings—but he is not to be approached, not to be known. The desire of secrecy has led to ingenious devices for having his works attributed to others, particularly to Walter Scott. That Walter Scott furnished most of the poetical fragments interspersed in *Waverley* as in *Rob Roy*, there is strong ground to believe, from the manner so easily

* To an acknowledgment of *Waverley*, Guy Mannering, and the Antiquary, should have been added the ‘*Tales of my Landlord*.’ The latter, by a politic manœuvre, were brought out by a different publisher, and kept out of view, as part of a system of concealment. Some of the sentiments contained in it might appear too favourable to the cause of the exiled house of Stuart, in the eyes of the ruling interest; or, as is more probable, it was necessary to avoid the too searching beams of public curiosity. A fifth Edinburgh edition of *Waverley* in our possession, contains a curious preface connected with this ambiguity, an extract of which we insert below, as it is in none of the American editions, they having been printed from an edition prior to the third, wherein it first appeared.

‘To this slight attempt at a sketch of ancient Scottish manners, the public have been more attentive than the author durst have hoped or expected. He has heard, with a mixture of satisfaction and humility, his work ascribed to more than one respectable name. Considerations, which seem weighty in his particular situation, prevent his releasing these gentlemen from suspicion by placing his own name in the title-page: so that, for the present at least, it must remain uncertain whether *Waverley* be the work of a poet or a critic, a lawyer or a clergyman, or whether the writer, to use Mrs. Heidelberg’s phrase, be “like Cerberus—three gentlemen at once.” The author, as he is unconscious of any thing in the work itself (except perhaps its frivolity) which prevents its finding an acknowledged father, leaves it to the candour of the public to chuse among the many circumstances peculiar to different situations in life, such as may induce him to suppress his name on the present occasion. He may be a writer new to publication, and unwilling to avow a character to which he is unaccustomed; or he may be a hackneyed author, who is ashamed of too frequent appearance, and employs this mystery, as the heroine of old comedy used her mask, to attract the attention of those to whom her face had become too familiar. He may be a man of grave profession, to whom the reputation of being a novel-writer may be prejudicial; or he may be a man of fashion, to whom writing of any kind might appear pedantic. He may be too young to assume the character of an author, or so old as makes it advisable to lay it aside.’

recognized; and that he assisted as far as regards Rob Roy's exploits, and the scite of them, we conclude from the fact of his having been known to be spending some time last summer in that part of the country and collecting such materials. But, if he shared in any degree in the second volume, it is certain that the first is infinitely above Walter Scott's power of attainment.

The term *Wig-wam* occurs in describing the residence of Rob, and in some of his former publications the author alludes to "the plantations," a name by which these States used formerly to be known. Dr. Greenfield visited America some years ago, and his accurate descriptions of sea affairs and seamen, their feelings, together with many other matters likely to fall under his notice in crossing the Atlantic, coincide with this circumstance. To account for such *phenomena* in the sedentary vocation of a literary life in London, which, in all probability, did not escape the scrutiny of the curious, rumour was purposely busied in imputing to a brother of Walter Scott at Quebec, the credit of the real author. This gentleman, though he might participate in the family genius of his distinguished relative, could not possibly be familiar enough with that classical lore, that theological reading, evinced in frequent biblical allusions, and the science of grammatical rules, which an acute observer will discern and trace, as belonging chiefly to those who, like the author, have been engaged in instructing others. It answered but a temporary purpose to direct the current of public opinion into such a channel; for, although paymaster Scott might be supposed to be acquainted with 'the plantations,' and too far removed for importunity on the subject to reach, yet it was manifestly out of all probability that a personage so capable of wielding his pen to sublimer purposes than the posting of a ledger, should continue at so remote a distance from his publisher, and persevere in an anonymous character.

Far be it from us to violate the sanctuary of private motives, where one might 'blush to find it fame;' but, in the homage due to his exalted literary attainments, in admiration of transcendent abilities, which we hope long to see exerted in the cause of public instruction, allied as they ever have been on the side of morality, and all the social and charitable affections, Dr. Greenfield must allow us to hail him as the genius of the age, unparalleled in the path he has chosen. Though no longer sensible to the attractions of celebrity, and writing only for support, he has done too much for reputation to allow it any longer to slumber in the taciturnity of rest. As a scholar he adorns our time; as a writer may he contribute to its improvement! He is a man of consummate talents, and evidently of extensive observation; his retired habits of late years have afforded those opportunities of profound reflection, superadded to indefatigable study, which eminently qualified him for the highest rank to whatever walk his genius might determine him.

'Much had he seen, much read, and in th' original perused mankind'

IT is well known that Rob Roy Macgregor was a real character, that he flourished at the beginning of the last century, and that he died in the year 1740.* The following anecdote, while it corroborates at the conclusion the authenticity and renown of his prowess, exhibits a gratifying view of that generous feeling, which, honourable to humanity, and relieving the harsher features of civil war, cannot be too much circulated and admired.

‘When the Highlanders upon the morning of the battle of Preston made their memorable attack, a battery of four field pieces was stormed and carried by the Camerons and the Stewarts of Appine. The late Alexander Stuart of Invernahyle was one of the foremost in the charge, and observed an officer of the King’s forces, who, scorning to join the flight of all around, remained with his sword in his hand, as if determined to the very last to defend the post assigned to him. The Highland gentleman commanded him to surrender, and received for reply a thrust which he caught in his target. The officer was now defenceless, and the battle-axe of a gigantic Highlander (the miller of Invernahyle’s mill) was uplifted to dash his brains out, when Mr. Stuart with difficulty prevailed on him to surrender. He took charge of his enemy’s property, protected his person, and finally obtained him liberty on his parole. The officer proved to be Colonel Allen Whiteford, of Ballochmyle, in Ayrshire, a man of high character and influence, and warmly attached to the house of Hanover; yet such was the confidence existing between these two honourable men, though of different political principles, that while the civil war was raging, and straggling officers from the Highland army were executed without mercy, Invernahyle hesitated not to pay his late captive a visit as he went back to the Highlands to raise fresh recruits, when he spent a few days among Colonel Whiteford’s whig friends as pleasantly and good humouredly as if all had been at peace around him. After the battle of Culloden it was Colonel Whiteford’s turn to strain every nerve to obtain Mr. Stuart’s pardon. He went to the Lord Justice Clerk, to the Lord Advocate, and to all the officers of state, and each application was answered by the production of a list in which Invernahyle (as the good old gentleman was wont to express it) appeared ‘marked with the sign of the beast!’ At length Colonel Whiteford went to the Duke of Cumberland. From him also he received a positive refusal. He then limited his request for the present, to a protection for Stuart’s house, wife, children, and property. This was also refused by the Duke: on which Colonel Whiteford, taking his commission from his bosom, laid it on the table before his Royal Highness, and asked permission to retire from the service of a sovereign who did not know how to spare a vanquished enemy. The Duke was struck, and even affected. He bade the Colonel take up his commission, and granted the protection he required with so much earnestness. It was issued just in time to save the house, corn, and cattle, at Invernahyle, from the troops who were engaged in laying waste what it was the fashion to call ‘the country of the enemy.’ A small encampment of soldiers was formed on Invernahyle’s property, which they spared while plundering the country around, and searching in every direction for the leaders of the insurrec-

* See *Memoirs of Rob Roy*, pages 134 and 250 of this volume

tion, and for Stuart in particular. He was much nearer them than they suspected: for hidden in a cave, (like the Baron of Bradwardine,) he lay for many days within hearing of the sentinels, as they called their watch-word. His food was brought to him by one of his daughters, a child of eight years old, whom Mrs. Stuart was under the necessity of entrusting with this commission, for her own motions and those of all her inmates were closely watched. With ingenuity beyond her years the child used to stray about among the soldiers, who were rather kind to her, and watch the moment when she was unobserved to steal into the thickets, when she deposited whatever small store of provisions she had in charge, at some marked spot, where her father might find it. Invernahyle supported life for several weeks, by means of these precarious supplies, and as he had been wounded in the battle of Culloden, the hardships which he endured were aggravated by great bodily pain. After the soldiers had removed their quarters he had another remarkable escape. As he now ventured to the house at night and left it in the morning, he was espied during the dawn by a party of the enemy who fired at and pursued him. The fugitive being fortunate enough to escape their search, they returned to the house and charged the family with harbouring one of the proscribed traitors. An old woman had presence of mind enough to maintain that the man they had seen was the shepherd. 'Why did he not stop when we called to him?' said the soldiers. 'He is as deaf, poor man, as a peat-stack,' answered the ready-witted domestic. 'Let him be sent for directly.'—The real shepherd accordingly was brought from the hill, and as there was time to tutor him by the way, he was as deaf when he made his appearance as was necessary to sustain his character. Stuart of Invernahyle was afterwards pardoned under the act of Indemnity. He was a noble specimen of the old Highlander, far descended, gallant, courteous and brave, even to chivalry. He had *turned out* in 1715 and 1745, was an active partaker in all the stirring scenes which passed in the Highlands, betwixt these memorable æras, and was remarkable, among other exploits, for having fought a duel with the broad sword with the celebrated Rob Roy Mac Gregor, at the Clachan of Balquidder. He chanced to be in Edinburgh when Paul Jones came into the Firth of Forth, and though then an old man, he was in arms, and exulted (to use his own words) in the prospect of "drawing his claymore once more before he died."

ART. II.—*Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for the Promotion of Useful Knowledge.*
Vol. I. New Series. Quarto, 448 pages. Printed for Abraham Small.

IT is now about nine years since the last volume of this society's transactions was published, and it may reasonably be inquired why the philosophical society of Philadelphia has not thought fit to follow the usual practice of similar societies in Europe, and present to the world an annual volume of their reflections and discoveries.

In the civilized nations of Europe, whose career of improvement commenced a thousand years ago, all the means and incitements to scientific pursuit have been accumulating for ages: population is dense: wealth is widely diffused; and literature, in all its

branches, has long been a profession: profit as well as honour attends success in literary acquirement, and scientific discoveries are sure passports to the best class of European society. The beneficial influence of literary and scientific pursuits on the wants, the comforts, and the pleasures of a community, have been long felt, and are now duly appreciated; so that well educated men, in the present day, embrace the objects to which learned leisure is usually devoted, not merely as an amusement, but as a profession—sure to be estimated and rewarded, in proportion to the talent and industry bestowed in the pursuit.

In the old countries of Europe, agriculture has almost ceased to be the great object of national encouragement, and to be regarded as the main source of national wealth. Commerce and manufactures have absorbed the accumulations of persevering industry, and the ideas of the ancients seem inverted among the modern professors of political economy: the fashion now is, not a system of manufacture and commerce founded upon agriculture, but a system of agriculture founded on, and subordinate to, manufacture and commerce.

For ourselves, we are persuaded, that the most regular, certain, and permanently productive source of national wealth and power is the cultivation of the soil; to which manufacture and commerce ought always to be subordinate—that the most extensive and most stable of all manufactures is the manufacture of grain into bread, of grass into meat, and of wool into clothing—that these give rise to improvements of a permanent nature, which no foreign competition, no change of fashion, can deprive us of—and that we are enabled by this kind of manufacture, to produce and support the greatest number of healthy human beings, capable of enjoying the blessings of life, and of defending the nation and the system that enables them to procure these blessings.

But it is also manifest, that the introduction of the manufacturing system in particular requires so much aid from science in all its branches, that manufactures cannot flourish to any extent where science does not also flourish. The manufacture of which iron is the material in all its complicated varieties, those that depend on pottery, on leather, on gold, silver, copper, tin, antimony, and zinc, those that furnish glass, jewellery, painting, gilding, varnishing, dying, printing, &c. the application of the mechanical powers, the laws of hydraulics, hydrostatics, and pneumatics—the steam engine, the mill, the loom, the press, every variety of machinery, all are necessary to the perfection of the manufacturing system, and every improvement bearing upon them is in constant demand, because it tends to save labour, increase consumption, and accumulate profit. In nations thus cultivating manufactures, with incessant competition and enterprise, knowledge of all kinds will be more generally diffused, more ardently pursued, more respected, and better rewarded, than in countries that are merely agricultural. Among such nations, societies for the improvement of science, and for the diffusion of this kind of knowledge will be

more fashionable and more frequent; and philosophical journals will abound, for the purpose of propagating that kind of knowledge by which the luxuries, the comforts, and conveniences called for in each class of civilized society, are furnished more readily, and earned more easily. For this is the necessary effect of superior knowledge of the properties of matter and the laws of physics. And although science may be, and is, desirable for its own sake, as exhibiting more sublime and extensive views of nature than can possibly be enjoyed by the ignorant and uninstructed, it does not fulfil its proper duties, unless it be employed in facilitating or increasing the number of human enjoyments; so that he who possesses it, may live a blessing to those who possess it not.

Hence, there is hardly a great city in Europe which does not boast of its philosophical societies; where the rays of knowledge, that would be otherwise scattered and dissipated, are collected and concentrated; and where the members who compose them are stimulated to exertion by mutual collision and competition. Similar views have given rise to the philosophical society whose memoirs we are about to examine; which promises in the due and regular course of social improvement, to hold its rank among similar institutions, without being disparaged by comparison with any.

To the inquiries why such an interval has taken place since the publication of the last volume, and why its memoirs are not distinguished by some such brilliant discoveries as have marked the progress of science of late years in England and in France—we may answer, that the commencement of white population for this continent can hardly be traced more than two centuries ago; that during two thirds of this time, incessant labour has been necessary for the bare purpose of comfortable subsistence; that our views have hardly extended beyond the demands of agriculture till about twenty years ago; that we are yet a mere agricultural people, depending upon the manufactures of Europe, and cultivating few of our own; that time has not yet furnished the accumulation of wealth which gives rise to literary leisure; that our laws, annulling the usual privileges of primogeniture, render this accumulation still more tardy; that science not being so much needed in a country purely agricultural, will not be so steadily pursued, or so amply rewarded as in a manufacturing community, where no scientific improvement fails of producing a beneficial effect upon the public, because there are so many objects ready to which it can be applied. Hence, it is not to be expected that we can have so many persons here, ardently engaged in scientific pursuits as in Europe, because the motives to the pursuit are fewer, and its recompense, whether in fame or fortune, more precarious. The time, indeed, is at hand, when this state of things will necessarily be reversed; in the mean time, however, let us not expect effects whose causes do not exist.

The present volume of the American Philosophical Society is a very creditable specimen of what our countrymen are capable of

under their present disadvantages; and it will be found decidedly superior in the merit of the communications, to the volumes that have preceded it.

The Introduction, of nineteen pages, is occupied with the rules of the society, lists of officers and members, conditions of the Magellanic and Surplus-Magellanic premium, report of the historical branch of the society, ordinance respecting an observatory, and obituary notices.

The first paper of the volume, the longest, and, as we think, not the least important, is a new edition, in fact, of the paper on the geology of the United States, formerly published in the transactions of this society, by William Maclure, Esq. The subject of geology may be considered as the prevailing and fashionable pursuit among men of science in Europe. Its great importance has begun of late years to be universally felt. The mineral riches of Great-Britain, Germany, France, and Sweden, have constituted so very large a proportion of the national wealth, that the eyes of every body are turned upon this branch of science, both in its amusing theory, and its interesting practice. For what can be a more useful branch of knowledge, than that which enables a man to say, when he first looks at the ground he treads on, what are the substances probably concealed within the bowels of the earth in that district of country, and whether they are probably within the practical reach of human effort?

All geology is founded on the supposition (first suggested by fact) that the various strata composing the crust of our globe, are in every known country found in the same relative situation to each other; so that they rest upon and rest under, and contain within them respectively, the same series of strata, and the same imbedded substances. Many anomalies and exceptions indeed there are; but the general observation is founded on facts so numerous and extensive, that its truth, as a leading feature of the science, seems daily to gain ground. It is the business of a geologist and mineralogist to know these strata, their relations to each other, and their constituent and component parts; to observe and compare the anomalies that present themselves, and ascribe them to their proper causes; and to deduce such general inferences as may lead to useful and practical results. All geologists agree, that the known strata (about sixty in number) are depositions from, or formations under water: superficial volcanic ejections, and alluvia excepted. The two prevailing theories are those ascribed to Werner, the German, and Hutton, the Scotch mineralogist, whose most devoted and industrious scholars and defenders are Dr. Jameson, who supports the opinions of Werner, and Dr. Playfair those of Hutton. These are the Neptunian and Plutonian theories, about which so much is said, and so little understood; neither of which, as we now know, is competent of itself to explain all the phenomena that force themselves on our notice.

The following introductory remarks on some of the uses of geology will be well received by our readers.

‘To specify the many practical advantages arising from the knowledge of the nature and relative positions of the rocks which cover the surface of the earth, would require volumes. Here, it is only proposed to mention a few, which almost every man, during some period of his life, may find the necessity of resorting to.

‘First, from the knowledge of the relative situation of rocks and from an accurate investigation of the usual succession of one species of rocks to another, we are guided in our search for coal, gypsum, salt, limestone, millstones, grindstones, whetstones, &c.; as well as the probable places where to look for all kinds of metallic veins and repositories: for example, coals have not been found under any species of primitive rocks; of course we should not look for them in that class, and if when digging for coal, we should come to the primitive rocks, we should desist. Coals have not been found in any profitable quantities immediately below any considerable bed of limestone, &c. &c. Wolfram accompanies tin in the greatest part of the tin mines; of course the appearance of wolfram is a sign, that most probably tin may be found in the vicinity, &c. Great sums of money have been lost in the United States, and in other countries, by digging for substances among classes of rocks, which have never been found to contain them elsewhere; and of course the probability was against their being found in that class of rocks here.

‘A knowledge of the nature and properties of rocks, and the results of their decomposition, enables us to judge of their hardness, easy or difficult decomposition, their component parts, mode of splitting, &c. by which we judge of their fitness for house buildings, roofing, road making, burning for lime, china or pottery, brick making, glass making, hearths for forges and furnaces, &c. We likewise know, by previous experience, the nature and richness of any metallic ore that may be found, and can calculate from the expense of procuring any ascertained quantity, whether the mine will pay for the working. It is thus we may avoid the losses of digging for species of ore, such as pyrites, that is worth little or nothing; as well as expending money in working a mine that was not rich enough to pay the labour. Much money might be saved by this kind of knowledge, in road making, where it frequently happens that a rock, such as limestone, slate, serpentine, &c. which would not perhaps last three months, is taken in preference to a quartz or hornblende rock, that would wear one or two years. Expense is often incurred by making and burning bricks, that are useless from the clay containing too great a quantity of calcareous matter; or of burning lime when the stone attempted to be burned contains too little of calcareous, and too much of argillaceous or other foreign matter, which prevents it being reduced to quicklime; all which, the proper application of a small quantity of acid might prevent.

‘It may be objected, that there are professional men who will give advice on these subjects, on better terms than we can acquire ourselves the necessary knowledge; but it is sometimes the case with all kinds of counsellors, that they are more interested in the profits of the process, than in the profits of the result: and when it is considered, that less than half the time necessary to give a smattering of any of the dead languages at our academies, would be more than sufficient to give our youth a complete knowledge of the common and useful applications of earths and rocks, we may reasonably hope that ere long some portion of time will be appropriated in our colleges and universities, to studies of undisputed utility; and that a knowledge of substances, their

properties and their uses, will be permitted in some degree to encroach on the study of mere words. The time seems fast approaching when what is called learning, will not in all cases be deemed, as it has been in too many, synonymous with knowledge.'

Mr. Maclure, after some general remarks, on the method of pursuing geological studies, proceeds to examine the rocks as they are found arranged in the United States, adopting the following Wernerian division and nomenclature of rocks.

'CLASS I.—Primitive Rocks.

COLOURED ON THE MAP,—SIENNA BROWN.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Granite, | 8. Porphyry, |
| 2. Gneiss, | 9. Sienite, |
| 3. Mica Slate, | 10. Topaz-rock, |
| 4. Clay Slate, | 11. Quartz-rock, |
| 5. Primitive Limestone, | 12. Primitive Flinty-slate, |
| 6. Primitive Trap, | 13. Primitive Gypsum, |
| 7. Serpentine, | 14. White-Stone. |

'CLASS II.—Transition Rocks.

CARMINE.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Transition Limestone, | 4. Transition Flinty-Slate, |
| 2. Transition Trap, | 5. Transition Gypsum. |
| 3. Grey Wacke, | |

'CLASS III.—Flötz or Secondary Rocks.

LIGHT BLUE.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| (dark blue) 1. Old Red Sandstone, or 1st Sandstone Formation, | 6. 2d Flötz-limestone, |
| | 7. 3d Flötz-sandstone, |
| | 8. Rock-salt Formation, |
| 2. First or Oldest Flötz-limestone, | 9. Chalk Formation, |
| 3. First or Oldest Flötz-gypsum, | 10. Flötz-trap Formation, |
| 4. 2d or Variegated Sandstone, | 11. Independent Coal Formation, |
| 5. 2d Flötz-gypsum, | 12. Newest Flötz-trap Formation. |

'CLASS IV.—Alluvial Rocks.

YELLOW.

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Peat, | 5. Nagel-fluh, |
| 2. Sand and Gravel, | 6. Calc-tuff, |
| 3. Loam, | 7. Calc-sinter. |
| 4. Bog Iron-ore, | |

GREEN.

'All the rock salt and gypsum hitherto found in the United States, has been traced westward of this line.'

It is evident that these colours refer to the accompanying geological map of the United States, which presents a most useful outline of the subject.

Many objections might be made to this Wernerian classification. For instance, porphyry is not so extensive a stratum as to hold rank, in this respect with granite, gneiss, or the other preceding rocks. Topaz rock is a trifling bed of primitive, accidentally containing topazes, that has not been traced, except in a confined

district of Saxony. Primitive flinty slate is not a regular stratum, but a rock found partially in primitive clay slate. Primitive gypsum is a substance by no means universally found; indeed its very existence has been doubted. As to the white stone, (the weiss stein of the German, and eurite of the French mineralogists) it is doubtful whether it be more than a gneiss of white appearance from the feldspar and the mica being of this colour. It is also a quere whether it has been observed in the United States at all. The flötz trap rocks of Werner, the volcanic and basaltic rocks, and the series of strata from the newest flötz limestone through the chalk formation upward, which are found in England, France, and some other parts of Europe, appear either to be wanting, or not yet accurately observed in the United States. Nor has any series of observation yet enabled us to identify strata by characteristic organic remains, as Smith, Townsend, Jameson, and Cuvier have been endeavouring to do in England and France. Indeed, the science of geology is, in the United States, a perfectly new one; nor is there extant any treatise or memoir on the subject, that contains the twentieth part of the information which the reader will find in this memoir of Mr. Maclure. It is singular, however, that we have no accurate account of any portion of the European continent of equal extent with that which Mr. Maclure describes from actual observation: nor is there any part of Europe of equal extent where the rocks lie so regularly, or where the Wernerian classification can be so well illustrated as on this continent of America. Mr. Maclure has visited and described an extent of country from actual survey, from Boston to Georgia, and has marked, far better than we could expect from any single observer, the lines that divide the primitive, transition, and secondary formations, including also the southeast boundary of the rock salt. When it is known that Mr. Maclure has travelled over all Europe as a geologist, and has dedicated twenty years of his life to this study, the great importance of this memoir will be readily perceived. It is illustrated by two very interesting coloured maps, comprising the great and leading geological features of the country described. This memoir is a present worthy of a man of science to make to his country. It is hoped that persons in authority will use their endeavours to procure a geological survey of every state, by districts; so that we may form some rational conjecture of the mineralogical riches which we possess within the bowels of the earth, and acquire some efficient means of getting at them.

The next paper, *Astronomical Observations*, &c. transmitted by Andrew Ellicot, Esq., is not of a nature to admit of any abridgment, interesting to our readers.

No. 3. *Abstract of Calculations to ascertain the Longitude of the Capitol in the City Washington*, by William Lambert. This question has been determined by Mr. Lambert, by means of observations on occultations and solar eclipses. The mean result of the calculations gives the distance of the Capitol from Greenwich observatory, near London, $76^{\circ} 55' 30'' 31$, equal to $5h 7' 42'' .02$ in time.

No. 4. *Investigation of the Figure of the Earth, and of the Gravity in different Latitudes*, by Robert Audrain. The principle upon which the author proceeds will be understood from the following extracts.

‘Now it has been demonstrated, on the principles of hydrostatics, by several eminent mathematicians, and particularly by Clairaut in his treatise on the figure of the earth, and by La Place in his *Mecanique Celeste*, that the augmentation of gravity in proceeding from the equator to the pole is as the square of the sine of the latitude; supposing the centrifugal force arising from the rotation of the earth on its axis to be very small in comparison to the gravity, that the several elliptical strata of the earth vary in density and ellipticity according to any function of the distance from the centre, and that the superficial parts of the earth are fluid, so as to obey the compound gravity, or the joint action of the attraction, and the centrifugal force. And, as the length of the simple pendulum vibrating in a second, or in any given time, is directly as the gravity, therefore the length of the pendulum follows the same law with the gravity, in passing from the equator to the pole, and the preceding table may be considered as a table of the observed gravities in different latitudes.

‘Let x be the unknown length of the pendulum vibrating seconds at the equator, y an unknown but fixed co-efficient, λ any latitude, and r the length of the pendulum in latitude λ ; then, agreeably to the law of gravity just stated, we have the following equation:

$$r = x + y \sin^2 \lambda,$$

in which when x and y are found, we shall have the value of r , or the measure of gravity in every latitude. But it is certain that whatever constant numbers we substitute for x and y , we cannot deduce such values for r as are exactly coincident with those given in the foregoing table according to observation: though the discrepancies are not considerable, and may justly be ascribed to the inevitable errors of experiment, in conjunction, perhaps, with a small deviation in the constitution of the earth, from the conditions that have been specified as the basis of the forementioned physical investigations of Clairaut and La Place.

‘Since, therefore, it is impossible to reconcile completely the physical theory with the observations; all that can be done is to determine such values for x and y as will cause the formula $x + y \sin^2 \lambda$ to accord best with the numbers in the table. This is effected by a rule published by the writer of this article in the *Analyst*, in 1808, and which applied to the present research requires us to discover such values for x and y as will render the sum of the squares of the differences between the several numbers of the table and the corresponding values of $x + y \sin^2 \lambda$ the least possible.’

No. 5. *Memoir on Leaden Cartridges*, by William Jones. This is a proposal to substitute cartridges of thin sheet lead instead of paper, on the grounds of more security in handling and firing the cartridges made of lead than those of paper, and also because less moisture will be imbibed, and the powder better preserved. There are strong marks of practical good sense in this paper, and the proposal seems worthy the attention of those who direct our military and naval armaments.

No. 6. *Tables of the Altitudes of Mountains in the States of New-York, New-Hampshire, and Vermont: calculated from Barometrical and Thermometrical Observations*, by A. Partridge, Captain of the Corps of Engineers. No particulars are given of the instruments used, or the means employed; or whether the precaution and corrections of Sr. Geo. Schuckburgh and general Le Roy were attended to: but we presume from captain Partridge's situation and character, that none of these were neglected. Barometrical observations should be checked by the thermometrical observations on the temperature of boiling water. Whether the thermometrical observations here alluded to, were of this nature we know not from any information supplied in the present memoir, which is in these respects unsatisfactory.

No. 7. *On the Population and Tumuli of the Aborigines of North America, in a Letter from H. H. Brackenridge, Esq. to Thomas Jefferson, Esq.* Mr. Brackenridge, from the number and extent of these tumuli, and other indications of a people different from the present supposed aborigines, deduces a population in former times for the North American continent, far greater than what we now see it. The paper is curious and entertaining; and will well repay an attentive perusal to a reader who feels interested in the antiquities of this continent. It will be found in this number of the Magazine.

No. 8. *An Account of some Experiments made on Crude Platinum; and a new Process for separating Palladium and Rhodium from that Metal*, by Joseph Cloud. Mr. Cloud dissolved the ore of platinum in nitro-muriatic acid, and precipitated it in the usual way by sal ammoniac. The precipitate, exposed to a white heat, yielded a gray metallic powder, which was fused by the hydrogen and oxygen blow-pipe (first invented by Mr. Hare, and greatly simplified and improved by Mr. Cloud many years before Dr. Clarke's pretended discovery). The metal thus obtained was rolled out, and proved to have a specific gravity of 23,643. The metals in the remaining solution were precipitated by zinc, mixed with four weights of silver, cupelled, and boiled in nitric acid, which took up the silver and the palladium. The silver was separated by muriatic acid, and the palladium by prussiat of mercury, and then fused with borax. Sp. gr. of the palladium 11 4-99. The platinum and gold were then separated by nitro-muriatic acid, and the rhodium remained in the undissolved black powder, which, when washed and fused by the hydro-pneumatic blow-pipe, was of sp. gr. 11,2. For further details we must refer to the paper itself, which is very creditable to this able chemist.

No. 9. *An Attempt to ascertain the Fusing Temperature of Metals*, by Joseph Cloud. This is an ingenious attempt to deduce the comparative fusibility of metals, from the compound ratio of their attraction of cohesion and their specific gravity. The coincidence renders the formula here adopted very probable.

No. 10. *An Inquiry into the Cause why Metals in their solid state appear to be specifically lighter than they are in a state of fu-*

sion, by Joseph Cloud. It has been assumed that the fact is as above stated, from the buoyancy of solid metals when thrown upon the same metals in fusion; iron is an instance. Mr. Cloud doubts the fact, and accounts for the appearances, from 1st, the attraction of cohesion not yet overcome in the fused metals, and 2d, the stream of radiant caloric ascending from the melted mass.

No. 11. *Observations and Conjectures on the Formation and Nature of the Soil of Kentucky*, by J. Correa de Serra. This is an attempt to account for the great fertility of the Elkhorn tract in Kentucky, from a deposition of vegetable matter on the soft shelly limestone whereon it reposes, and which has undergone gradual decomposition without having been subjected to the pressure of superincumbent strata. While the coal region is accounted for from a similar deposit of vegetable matter, while the ocean covered the lower strata forming the floor of a coal mine, and which vegetable deposition has been gradually decomposed under the pressure of the various strata that cover the coal formation; so that in the first case, many of the chemical constituents of the vegetable deposit have escaped into the atmosphere, and prevented the formation of coal—while, in the latter case, they have been returned upon the vegetable stratum, and entered into the new combinations which has given origin to coal beds. The learned author illustrates this by the submarine forest extending from the mouth of the Humber to Peterborough in England, of which he gave an account in the Philosophical Transactions of London.

No. 12. *An easy Solution of an useful Problem in Arithmetic*, by James Austin. This is a brief process for finding the sum or the difference of the products of any number of given factors: and applicable to the calculations required in surveys of tracts of land.

No. 13. *On the geological formation of the Natural Bridge in Virginia*, by Francis W. Gilmer. This remarkable object is accounted for by the gradual operation of water on the limestone stratum which was formerly connected with the present arch.

No. 14. *Analysis of the Iron Blue Earth of New-Jersey*, by Thomas Cooper, M. D. This substance has usually been considered as a prussiat or a phosphat of iron. From the experiments here related, it cannot now be deemed either the one or the other: for alkalies boiled on it produced no prussian blue with solutions of iron, and the earth, when dissolved in acids and diluted, showed no precipitate of phosphat of lead on the addition of nitrat and of acetat of lead. The author considers it as a hydrat.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. III.—*An original collection of the Poems of Ossian, Orrann, Ulin, and other bards who flourished in the same age. Collected and edited by Hugh and John M'Callum. Montrose, pp. 300. 1816.*

THIS volume, though more than a year old has we believe but recently reached our shores. It is said to be brought hither for our edification by the learned collectors and editors themselves. We have great reason to be obliged to them for such a proof of confi-

dence in our taste and liberality, and although it must be confessed that whosoever reads the 'collection' with the hope of finding any of the wild sublimity of Ossian must be grievously disappointed, yet the work is an object of curiosity and a source of amusement, as a very successful effort in the art of *book-making*, and a diverting repository of *bathos* and bombast.

Of the three hundred pages contained within the binding, considerably less than one half that number are devoted to redeem the magnificent promise of the title page. The rest of the book is preface, list of subscribers' names, which alone occupies fifty nine, life of St. Columba, &c. &c. This it must be allowed, is showing considerable skill in *editorship*; we wish as much could be advanced in favour of the editor's talents for poetry. But we are constrained to say the list of 'Subscribers' names,' is the least faulty part of the production.

We are aware that in speaking of Ossian, we tread 'super ignes suppositas cineri doloso;' those who admire that bard, as much as Napoleon is said to do, will scarce forgive an irreverent mention of his name, while not a few of our readers are sceptical as to the reality even of his existence; but whether the songs attributed to Ossian were truly his, or Macpherson composed what he said he only translated, we are among those who sincerely and warmly admire these poems, and therefore began the perusal of the Messrs. M'Callum's collection with no anticipation farther from our thoughts than that of laughing at it.

At the very first glance the names appeared sufficiently *Ossianic*; and when we found such personages before us as *Cuchulin*, *Conull*, *Lascar*, and *Daol*, together with an abundant supply of mists and beams and glens and mountains, we did hope for a fine display of Gaelic splendour. But our readers will judge of our amazement, when we met with such sentences as the following:

'What do we see in that chariot? In that chariot we see the bald-pated, white-hoofed, small-shanked, clean-maned, crooked-necked, high-headed, silk-mantled, broad-breasted, young, short-haired, small-eared, high-spirited, stately-formed, wide-nostriled, slender-made, horses; covered with jewels; brisk as foals, comely, nice, ostentatious, wild-leaping in the chariot—commonly called Du-semliu.' p. 127.

'The mild hero approached us, but at length to our vexation. His face was incapable of the emotion of terror, and he strongly solicited a battle of dogs. Fairer than the rays of the sun was his complexion; his two cheeks of the colour of the rasp; his body whiter than any snow, though his hair *happened to be black*.' p. 133.

'Beautiful was the form of Bran, [a dog] the hair of his tendons was far from his head, his middle broad, his breast low, joints bowed, and crooked houghs; the feet of Bran were of a yellow hue, his two sides black, and his belly white; his back green, about which the beasts of the chase often lay, his steep folding ears of the colour of purple. They set the dogs nose to nose, and blood was shed among the host.' p. 134.

'Steady was the friendship of Gaul; victorious was he ever in battle; high-bouncing was his rage, his store was abundant. A hero of mild white teeth, who never forsook his friend,' &c. p. 136.

'When the red-haired Cairbre saw his forces hewed down by Oscar, at him he darted the sharp spear that was in his hand, and pierced him between the kidneys and the navel,' &c. p. 144.

'A courteous virgin, &c. whiter than the beam rays of the sun was the upper part of her breast, under her handsome *shift*,' &c. p. 149.

'Iolunn turned to my son who strenuously fought against the great boned, wounding, quick handed, high-leaping hero,' p. 151.

'Dermid, measure the boar how many feet there are between its snout and its heel, &c. The son of Duivne of heavy foot, again measured the boar, an unprosperous expedition indeed: the mortal, strong bristles pierced the soles of the hero, who was valiant in battle,' p. 178.

'Many were the pictures of lions, and leopards, on the silken vestment of the great hero, &c. a sword, long, broad, and glittering, was upon the side of the great, victorious, courageous, terrible, fierce hero. His helmet and breast-plate are bright, small-spotted, beautiful, and bound by melted silver, with *epaulets* of shining gold.' p. 192.

'Behind him there is another man marching without clemency, sense, breeding or shame, &c. Rage and fury are rising up behind the ears of the real dog, opening his babbling, gaping, hard teeth, to tear my armies to pieces before he shall stop,' p. 201.

The last of these '*poems*' as they are called, 'heaven save the mark,' is put into verse, by way of improvement upon Ossian; and is followed by what is termed a '*metrical effusion*,' whether by *Ossian*, or M'Callum, we are not informed; it is however so much in uniformity as to taste and spirit with the preceding *effusions* that one is naturally led to infer, it is by the same author, be he ancient or modern. We can hardly suppose however, that the worthy Messrs. M'Callum, intend to persuade the world that their '*metrical effusion*,' was composed by Ossian, or any 'other bard who flourished in the same age,' as Bonaparte, and the battle of Waterloo, are rhymed into it. The battle makes a grand figure.

'War's columns now advanced in silent state,

Majestic, awful, big with Europe's fate!

Britannia's lion roar'd:—*My cubs*, away!

Spring on yon wolves, and glut your maws with prey!

We sincerely wish we could make some extracts of a character more favourable to the work of the Messrs. M'Callum, but all that is not ridiculous throughout the book, is flat and vapid. Whether the '*collection*' be really of genuine translation from Gaelic we will not pretend to conjecture, not being at all acquainted with the spirit of that language. The list of subscribers seems to show a considerable degree of confidence in the veracity of the publishers; but this we can safely aver that if the '*poems*' in question were composed by Ossian, they only add another proof that the same man who writes excellently well at one time may write execrably ill at another.

ART. IV.—*View of Ticonderoga.*

THE engraving in the number for this month presents a view of the remains of Ticonderoga Forts on Lake Champlain, from a drawing taken by Mr. H. Reinagle, the artist, of this city. Ticonderoga is a name familiar to the readers of our early history—its capture was one of those auspicious successes which ushered in the dawn of the revolution, and subsequent events have attached to Lake Champlain a memorable interest, by the decisive victory of Macdonough in the late war. It is situated about fifteen miles south of Crown Point, and about thirty north of Skeenesborough (now Whitehall), where Wood Creek falls into Lake Champlain. It is formed by a sharp angle in the narrow waters of the Lake, and an arm of that Lake stretching to the westward, which receives the waters of Lake George, at the foot of a precipitous fall of about twenty feet. The stream which connects these lakes makes a considerable curvature to the west, and in the distance of two miles tumbles over successive strata of rocks about three hundred feet, the difference of the level between the surface of Lake George and that of Lake Champlain, furnishing a variety of excellent mill scites, accessible to the navigable waters of Lake George forty miles, and to those of Lake Champlain and the river Sorel, which empties itself into the St. Lawrence, about one hundred and thirty miles. From this, the consequence of the situation will readily be perceived.

Ticonderoga was long considered an important post, as it commanded, in times when the country was little explored and still less cleared, all the passes between Canada and the other provinces. It was fortified in the time of the French, long prior to the war of 1756. On the projecting rock that overhangs the margin of the lake, they established a barrier post named Carillon, a quadrangular work, with regular bastions of masonry. During that war, it was rendered famous by the repulse of General Abercrombie from before it, 8th July 1758, after having sustained a loss of near 2000 men in killed and wounded, although he might, by taking possession of a neighbouring height, called Mount Defiance, have easily carried the place.

The French officer who commanded at Ticonderoga, when he heard of General Abercrombie's approach, found it necessary to the defence of the post to take possession of an elevated ridge on the direct route to it from the landing at Lake George, which, at less than half a mile, entirely overlooked the works. This ridge is flat on the summit, and extends westwardly about half a mile to the saw-mills at the perpendicular fall before mentioned, where it terminates in still higher ground, called Mount Hope. On the south it presents a bold acclivity, washed by the strait, and to the north it declines until it sinks into a plain, which is extended about an hundred rods to the shore of the lake, where the bank is ten or twelve feet high; across the crown of this ridge, at the extremity nearest the fort, the garrison hastily threw-up an intrenchment, with a common ditch, judiciously flanked, which was strengthened by felling

the forest trees in front outwards, and these they trimmed, pointed, and formed into an impervious abattis, sixty or eighty rods deep, in which the assailants became entangled, and were deliberately shot down, until, after repeated attempts during four hours, in which the most persevering resolution was displayed, they were called off, and the army immediately retreated without molestation. On the approach of General Amherst however, in 1759, with a superior force, Mons. Bourslemarque, the French commander, retired from Ticonderoga with his main body, leaving a garrison of four hundred men to defend the Forts, and intrenched himself on the opposite side of the strait formed by Crown Point and Chimney Point. General Amherst opened trenches against Carillon the 23d July, and the place was abandoned and blown up, after some opposition, on the 26th.

At the peace of 1763, it was confirmed to the British possession, and the Forts were repaired and placed in a posture of defence. In progress of time, as fresh roads and communications were opened, it became of inferior consequence as a pass, on which account it was in some degree neglected, though serving as a nucleus for the resort of Indians, whom the policy of hostilities might instigate to take up arms. On this account, it attracted the early attention of the adjacent states of Vermont and Connecticut on the breaking out of the war of the Revolution, and colonel Allen, at the head of two hundred and thirty *green mountain boys** as they were termed, was appointed, soon after the news of the battle of Lexington, to undertake the reduction of the place. Intelligence as to the state of the garrison was obtained by means of an officer who disguised himself, and entered the Fort in the character of a countryman wanting to be shaved. In searching for a barber, he observed every thing critically, asked a number of rustic questions, affected great ignorance, and passed unsuspected. Before night he withdrew, joined his party, and at an early hour in the morning guided them to the most vulnerable point. Colonel Allen arrived opposite to Ticonderoga on the 9th of May 1775. Boats were procured with difficulty, when he crossed over with 83 men, and landed near the garrison. The colonel headed, accompanied by the officer who was to act as guide, and entered the fort leading to the works early in the morning. A sentry snapped his piece at colonel Allen, and then retreated through the covered way to the parade, followed by the assailants. Captain De la Place, the commander of the place, was surprised in his bed. Colonel Allen demanded the surrender of the keys, and upon the captain asking by what authority, he replied, 'I demand them in the name of the great Jehovah and the continental Congress.' Had the garrison been alarmed in time, they could have made no effectual resistance, as the fort was out of repair, and

* So called from their residing within the limits of the Green Mountains, as the Hampshire grants were denominated, from the range of Green Mountains that runs through them—a brave hardy race, chiefly settlers from New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Connecticut. The territory has now the name of Vermont.

the effectives in it did not exceed 49 men.* Could he have gained timely intelligence, he might have procured a reinforcement from St. John's, but the *coup de main* was so secretly and well conducted, that not the remotest suspicion of the intended attack was entertained.

In the progress of the war of the revolution, we find Ticonderoga occupied by a detachment of the American army, employed in improving the old French lines, and erecting new works on the same side of the lake, and also on Mount Independence, which is separated from Ticonderoga by a strait about 80 poles wide. General Gates had his head-quarters here, and was afterwards succeeded by Major general St. Clair. On the approach of the British army under Lieut. general Burgoyne, in 1777, it was judged proper to evacuate the place, owing to the very superior force of the enemy, and the want of adequate means of defending both the Forts and Mount Independence, possession of the latter being essential to the preservation of the former. At that period, it was impossible to spare reinforcements, operations to the eastward requiring the services of every individual of the main army.

In the course of the war however, after the surrender of Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, it reverted to the possession of the American army.

The view is taken from the cottage seen, at Lacobie point, and bears a western aspect. The Forts are in a state of ruin; but the stone walls of the barracks are standing, and from the durability of the materials, likely to remain in a state of good preservation for a considerable time. The officers' wing of apartments, being built of brick, is dilapidated, and supplies the house below on the shore, which is inhabited by a farmer, with building materials. This house formerly was a store of the garrison, and a bridge once stretched across from the fort to the opposite shore. The remains of the bastion, on the rocky projection, under which the sloop is seen, and which commanded the navigation of the lake, are still existing. The character of the adjacent country, it will be seen, is mountainous; on the Vermont side it is level. It is remarkably healthy, and many of the inhabitants attain to longevity. The beauty of the situation, and curiosity, excited by a recollection of the events on Lake Champlain, now peacefully navigated by the steam-boat, which carries passengers at a very moderate rate, contribute to attract the resort of numerous travellers in the summer season, and to attach something more than an ordinary interest to the scene represented.

* The prisoners were, the captain, lieutenant, a gunner, 2 serjeants, and 44 rank and file, beside women and children. There were captured about 120 iron cannon from 6 to 24 pounders; 2 brass cannon; 50 swivels of different sizes; 2 ten inch mortars; 1 howitzer; 1 cohorn; 10 tons of musket balls; 3 cart-loads of flints. 30 new gun-carriages; a considerable quantity of shells; a store-house full of materials to carry on boat-building; 100 stand of small arms; 10 casks of powder, 30 barrels of flour; 18 barrels of pork, and some beans and pease.

ART. V.—*On the Population and Tumuli of the Aborigines of North America.* In a letter from H. M. Brackenridge, esq. to Thomas Jefferson.—Read Oct. 1, 1813.

[From the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society.]

Baton Rouge, July 25, 1813.

SIR—From a knowledge that research into the history of the primitive inhabitants of America, is one of your favourite amusements, I take the liberty of making this communication. My attention to the subject, was first awakened on reading, when a boy, the observations contained in the ‘Notes on Virginia,’ and it has become, with me, a favourite theme of speculation. I often visited the mound, and other remains of Indian antiquity in the neighbourhood of Pittsburgh, my native town, attracted by a pleasing interest, of which I scarcely knew the cause, and afterwards read, and heard with delight, whatever related to these monuments of the first, or rather earlier, inhabitants of my native country. Since the year 1810 (without previously intending it) I have visited almost every thing of this kind, worthy of note on the Ohio and Mississippi; and from examination and reflection, something like hypothesis, has taken the place of the vague wanderings of fancy. The following is a sketch of the result of those observations.

I. Throughout, what is denominated by Volney, the valley of the Mississippi, there exist the traces of a population far beyond what this extensive and fertile portion of the continent, is supposed to have possessed: greater, perhaps, than could be supported of the present white inhabitants, even with the careful agriculture practised in the most populous parts of Europe. The reason of this, is to be found in the peculiar manners of the inhabitants by whom it was formerly occupied; like those of Mexico, their agriculture had for its only object their own sustenance; no surplus was demanded for commerce with foreign nations, and no part of the soil, susceptible of culture, was devoted to pasturage; yet, extensive forests filled with wild animals would still remain. The aggregate population of the country might be less, but that of particular districts much greater. We must, in this way, account for the astonishing population of the vale of Mexico, when first known to the Spaniards; perhaps equal to any district of the same extent of climate.* The astonishing population of Owyhee, and Otaheite, must be accounted for in the same way. There are certainly many districts on the Ohio and Mississippi equally favourable to a numerous population. When I contemplated the beauty and fertility of those spots, I could scarcely believe it possible, that they should never have supported a numerous population; such a fact would form an exception to what has usually occurred, in every other part of the globe.

II. In the valley of the Mississippi, there are discovered the traces of two distinct traces of people, or periods of population.

* See Humboldt, Vol. II. page 127.

one much more ancient than the other. The traces of the last are the most numerous, but mark a population less advanced in civilization; in fact, they belong to the same race that existed in the country when the French and English effected their settlements on this part of the continent: but since the intercourse of these people with the whites, and their astonishing diminution in numbers, many of their customs have fallen into disuse. It is not more than a hundred and twenty years, since the character of the population, which left the traces of the second period, underwent a change. The appearances of fortifications, of which so much has been said, and which have been attributed to a colony of Welch, are nothing more than the traces of pallisadoed towns or villages. The first travellers mention this custom of surrounding their towns with palisades; the earth was thrown up a few feet, and pickets placed on the top. I have seen old volumes in which they are represented in the engravings.* The Arikara and Mandan villages are still fortified in this way. The traces of these are astonishingly numerous in the western country; I should not exaggerate if I were to say that *five thousand* might be found. Some of them inclose more than an hundred acres. From some cause or other (and we know that there are enough which might suffice to effect it) the population had been astonishingly diminished immediately before we became acquainted with them; and yet Charlevoix mentions a town of the Mascutin tribe (at present incorporated with the Kickapoos) containing a thousand families! The barrows, or general receptacles of the dead, such as examined by yourself, may be classed with the pallisadoed towns, though they are much more numerous; they are, in fact, to be found in almost every corn-field in the western country. The tumuli, or mounds, are often met with, where there is no appearance of pallisadoed villages or fortifications, or of barrows.

III. The first and more ancient period, is marked by those extraordinary tumuli or mounds. I have reason to believe that their antiquity is very great. The oldest Indians have no tradition as to their authors, or the purposes for which they were originally intended; yet they were formerly, I might almost say instinctively, in the habit of using them for one of the purposes for which they were at first designed, to wit, as places of defence. The old chief Du Coin, told Mr. Rice Jones that the mounds in the American bottom had been fortified by the Kaskaskias in their wars with the Iroquois. An old work by Lafitau, a jesuit, which I met with at New Orleans, contains a curious plate in which one of these mounds fortified by palisades on the top, and large beams extending to the bottom, is assaulted by enemies. These tumuli as well as the fortifications, are to be found at the junction of all the considerable rivers, in the most eligible positions for towns, and in the most ex-

* These are to be seen in many old volumes in the present library of Congress, which contains the most valuable collection of books on America to be found in any part of the world.

tensive bodies of fertile land. Their number exceeds, perhaps, *three thousand*; the smallest not less than twenty feet in height, and one hundred in diameter at the base. Their great number, and the astonishing size of some of them, may be regarded as furnishing, with other circumstances, evidence of their antiquity. I have been sometimes induced to think, that at the period when those mounds were constructed, there existed on the Mississippi, a population as numerous as that which once animated the borders of the Nile, or of the Euphrates, or of Mexico and Peru.

IV. The most numerous, as well as the most considerable of these remains, are found precisely in the part of the country where the traces of a numerous population might be looked for, to wit, from the mouth of the Ohio (on the east side of the Mississippi) to the Illinois river, and on the west side from the St. Francis to the Missouri. I am perfectly satisfied that cities similar to those of *ancient Mexico*, of several hundred thousand souls, have existed in this part of the country. Nearly opposite St. Louis there are the traces of two such cities, in the distance of five miles, on the bank of the Cohokia, which crosses the American bottom at this place.* There are not less than one hundred mounds, in two different groups; one of the mounds falls little short of the Egyptian pyramid Mycerius. When I examined it, in 1811, I was astonished that this stupendous monument of antiquity should have been unnoticed by any traveller: I afterwards published an account in the newspapers at St. Louis, detailing its dimensions, describing its form, position, &c. but this, which I thought might almost be considered a discovery, attracted no notice: and yet I stated it to be eight hundred paces in circumference (the exact size of the pyramid of Asychis) and one hundred feet in height. The mounds at Grave Creek and Marietta are of the second or third class. The mounds at St. Louis, at New Madrid, and at the commencement of Black River, are all larger than those of Marietta. The following is an enumeration of the most considerable mounds on the Mississippi and on the Ohio; the greater part I examined myself with such attention as the short time I had to spare would permit.

1. At Great Creek, below Wheeling.
2. At Pittsburgh.
3. At Marietta.
4. At Cincinnati.
5. At New Madrid—one of them 350 feet diameter at the base.
6. Bois Brulie bottom, fifteen miles below St. Genevieve.
7. At St. Genevieve.
8. Mouth of the Marameck.
9. St. Louis—one with two stages, another with three.
10. Mouth of the Missouri.
11. On the Cohokia river—in two groups.

* See the chapter on the Antiquities of the Valley of the Mississippi, in the *Views of Louisiana*, by the author of this *Memoir*, p. 181. Pittsburgh edition, 1814.

12. Twenty miles below—two groups also, but the mounds of a smaller size—on the back of a lake, formerly the bed of the river.

13. Near Washington (M. T.) 146 feet in height.

14. At Baton Rouge, and on the bayou Manchac—one of the mounds near the lake is chiefly composed of shells—the inhabitants have taken away great quantities of these for the purpose of making lime.

15. The mound on Black River, of two stages, with a group around it.

At each of these places there are groups of mounds; and at each there probably once existed a city. On the other considerable rivers which are tributary to the Ohio and Mississippi, in Kentucky, Tennessee, state of Ohio, Indiana territory, &c. they are equally numerous. But the principal city and center of population was between the Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri, and Illinois. I have been informed that in the plains between the Arkansa and St. Francis, they are numerous and some very large. They resemble the Teocalli, in these important features, 1. In their positions the cardinal points are observed with considerable accuracy. 2. The larger mounds have several stages. 3. In every group there are two mounds much larger than the others. 4. The smaller mounds are placed around symmetrically. A closer examination would show a resemblance in other particulars. It is doubted by Humboldt whether advantage had not been taken of some natural rise, in the formation of the pyramid of Cholula; with respect to the mound of Cohokia, there can be no doubt, for it stands in the midst of alluvium, and there is no natural hill nearer than two miles.*

Such are the appearances of antiquity in the western country, which I consider as furnishing proof of an ancient and numerous population. The resemblance to those of New Spain would render probable the existence of the same arts and customs; perhaps of an intercourse. The distance from the large mound on Red River, to the nearest in New Spain, is not so great but that they might be considered as existing in the same country.

From the description of the *Adoratorios*, as they are called, it appears highly probable that the mounds on the Mississippi were destined for the same purposes. Solis tells us, that every considerable place had a number of them, upon which a kind of tower was erected, and which gave rise to the belief of those who first visited the coast of New Spain, that they had seen cities with numerous steeples;† from which circumstance they bestowed upon it the name of their native country. The four great cities to which the general name of Mexico was given, contained two thousand of these *Adoratorios* or Teocalli; at the first glance, this vast popula-

* See the account of the Teocalli of New Spain, by Humboldt, pages 16, 41, 44, 123, 170, &c. Vol. II. New York edition, 1811.

† Mr. Robertson, who is disposed to lessen every thing American, and to treat with contempt unworthy of a philosopher, all their acts and advancement in civilization, attributes this to the imaginations of the Spaniards, inflamed with the spirit of Quixotic adventure.

tion, equal perhaps to London or Paris, appeared to be crowned with innumerable towers and steeples. Architecture was, perhaps, too much in its infancy to enable them to build to any great height, a mound was therefore raised, and a building erected on the top. It was in this way the temple of Belus at Babylon was erected, and the Egyptian pyramids of the second class, which are solid, and probably the most ancient. Besides being places of adoration, the Teocalli also served as fortresses; they were usually the last places to which the inhabitants of the cities conquered by Cortez resorted, after having been driven from every other quarter. They were enabled from the position, form, and the tower on the top, to defend themselves in these situations to great advantage. Placed from the bottom to the top of the mount, by gradations above each other, they appeared (as Solis in his animated style expresses it) to constitute 'a living hill;' and, at first, judging only from the experience of their own wars, they fancied themselves unassailable.

From the oldest book extant, the Bible, we see exemplified, in numerous instances, the natural predilection for resorting to *high-places*, for the purpose of worship; this prevailed amongst all nations, and probably the first edifice dedicated to the Deity was an elevation of earth, the next step was the placing a temple on it, and finally churches and mosques were built with steeples. This having prevailed in all countries, may be considered as the dictate of nature. The most ancient temples of the Greeks were erected on artificial, or natural elevations of earth; at the present day, almost every part of Europe and Asia, exhibits these remains of tumuli, the rudest, though perhaps the most lasting of human works.* The mausoleum generally holds the next place to the temple; and, what is remarkable, all nations in their wars have made the last stand in the edifices consecrated to their gods, and near to the tombs of their ancestors. The *Adoratorios* of New Spain, like all works of the kind, answered the three purposes, of the temple, the fortress, and the mausoleum. Can we entertain a doubt but that this was also the case with those of the Mississippi?

The antiquity of these mounds is certainly very great; this is not inferred from the growth of trees, which prove an antiquity of a few centuries, but from this simple reflection; a people capable of works requiring so much labour, must be numerous, and if numerous, somewhat advanced in the arts; we might therefore look for works of stone or brick, the traces of which would remain for at least eight or ten centuries. The great mound of Cohokia, is evidently constructed with as much regularity as any of the Teocalli of New Spain, and was doubtless cased with brick or stone, and crowned with buildings; but of these no traces remain. Near the mound at St. Louis, there are a few decaying stones, but which may have been casually brought there. The pyramid of Papantla, in the northern part of the Intendancy of Vera Cruz, unknown to the first conquerors, and discovered a few years ago, was still partly

* See Appendix to Volney's View of America, Clark's Travels in America, &c.

cased with bricks. We might be warranted in considering the mounds of the Mississippi more ancient than the Teocalli: a fact worthy of notice, although the stages are still plain in some of them, the gradations or steps have disappeared, in the course of time the rains having washed them off. The pieces of obsidian or flint, are found in great quantities near them, as is the case with the Teocalli. Some might be startled if I should say that the mound of Cohokia is as ancient as those of Egypt! The Mexicans possessed but imperfect traditions of the construction of their Teocalli; their traditions attribute them to the Toultees, or to the Olmees, who probably migrated from the Mississippi.

Who will pretend to speak with certainty as to the antiquity of America—the races of men who have flourished and disappeared—of the thousand revolutions, which, like other parts of the globe, it has undergone? The philosophers of Europe, with a narrowness and selfishness of mind, have endeavoured to depreciate every thing which relates to it. They have called it the *New World*, as though its formation was posterior to the rest of the habitable globe. A few facts suffice to repel this idea:—the antiquity of her mountains, the remains of volcanoes, the alluvial tracts, the wearing away of cataracts, &c. and the number of primitive languages, greater perhaps than in all the rest of the world besides.

The use of letters, and the discovery of the mariner's compass, the invention of gunpowder and of printing, have produced incalculable changes in the old world. I question much whether before those periods, comparatively recent, there existed, or could exist, nations more civilized than the Mexicans, or Peruvians. In morals, the Greeks and Romans, in their most enlightened days, were not superior to the Mexicans. We are told that these people sacrificed human beings to their gods! did not the Romans sacrifice their unfortunate prisoners to their depraved and wicked pleasures, compelling them to kill each other? Was the sacrifice of Ephigenia, to obtain a favourable wind, an act of less barbarity than the sacrifices by the Mexicans of their prisoners on the altar of their gods? The Peruvians were exempt from these crimes—perhaps the mildest and most innocent people that ever lived, and in the arts as much advanced as were the ancient Persians or Egyptians; and not only in the arts, but even in the sciences. Was ever any work of the old world superior to the two roads from Quito to Cusco?

Pardon me, sir, for troubling you with this long, and perhaps tiresome letter, dictated probably by the vanity of personally communicating my crude theories to one who holds so distinguished a place in that temple of science which belongs to every age and every country.

With sentiments of the highest respect,

I am, sir, your most obedient humble servant,

H. M. BRACKENRIDGE.

ART. VI.—*Account of David Ritchie, the original of the Black Dwarf.*

[The public feeling is alive to all that issues from the prolific genius of the author of *Rob Roy*, &c. and connects with whatever is illustrative of his works, the eagerness of curiosity and the attention of interest. Under this impression we give place to the following account of THE BLACK DWARF, which it will be remembered is the first of 'Tales of my Landlord' by the same author, extracted from the *Edinburgh Magazine*, a work that seems occasionally employed as the organ to afford to his countrymen elucidations on the more prominent topics of the author's ingenuity.]

THE singular person of whose real history and condition we now propose to detail a few particulars, has already excited the curiosity and contributed to the entertainment of the public in no ordinary degree, under the fictitious character of the BLACK DWARF. Of Ritchie's being the real prototype of that marvellous misanthrope, we do not profess to entertain even the shadow of a doubt. Under that view he has been already described, evidently from high authority, in the *Quarterly Review*—and also in the *Edinburgh Monthly Magazine* for June, by a correspondent who has since communicated to us some further curious and well authenticated information, which corroborates in general his former account, and which, with materials from other sources, enables us to present our readers with the following details.

David Ritchie, commonly called Bowed Davie, was born at Easter Haprew, in the parish of Stobo, Peeblesshire, about the year 1749. His father, William Ritchie, a labouring man, was employed for many years in the slate quarries at that place, as was also one of his sons, who was older than David. The name of our hero's mother was Niven. David used to say, that his deformity was owing to *ill-guiding* in his childhood; but this was not credited, and he is understood to have been mis-shapen from his birth. Whether his peculiar temper arose entirely from this cause or from original disposition, it appears at least to have displayed itself at a very early age; and his father used to observe, that, 'he was born either to slay or be slain.' He was never more than a few months at school, but he had learned to read English very well. He was sent to Edinburgh when young to learn the trade of a brush-maker; but his extraordinary figure attracted so much notice, that he soon left this city in disgust and retired to his native hills.

How he subsisted on his return to the country we have not heard, but some time afterwards, probably on the death of his father, he attracted the notice of sir James Nasmyth; and being now settled in the parish of Manor, he formed the plan of erecting a cottage for himself on the grounds of that gentleman, whose permission he seems to have readily obtained. He fixed upon a spot of ground at the bottom of a steep bank on the farm of Woodhouse. The benevolent proprietor directed his servants to lend him what assistance he might require, and gave him possession of the ground rent-free. The dwarf required but little assistance. With incredible labour and perseverance, he first cleared the space to be occupied by his hut and a small garden; scooping out for that pur-

pose a large recess in the side of the hill, which, rising abruptly, formed on the one side a natural wall to the garden. The rest of it was inclosed partly by a wall of considerable height, and partly by the cottage, which occupied another of the sides. The walls both of the garden and the hut were chiefly built by Davie himself, of such materials as the spot afforded. Though without mortar, they were very solid, and were formed of alternate layers of large stones and turf. Having covered the cottage with a neat thatch-roof, and constructed a small door, and a few rude pieces of household furniture, he proceeded to the cultivation of his garden, in which he displayed very considerable taste, as well as industry. In a short time he contrived to stock it with a few fruit trees, and with all sorts of flowers, herbs, and culinary vegetables which could be procured in the neighbourhood. His manner of working is described, by persons who used to visit him, as exceedingly laborious. Being unable to make any use of his feet in digging, he had a spade so contrived, that he could force it down with his breast; the rest of the labour was performed entirely by means of his arms and hands, in which he possessed great strength. He also procured some beehives, and planted a bower of willows and rowan-tree; and by degrees his little hermitage exhibited a very striking contrast to the slovenly *kail-yards* of the neighbouring peasants, and looked more like a fairy bower than a wizard's den. It soon came to be resorted to by visiters, being accounted, with its inhabitant, one of the most interesting curiosities of the country. The late venerable professor Ferguson used sometimes to visit Davie, and also, it is said, some other individuals of high literary celebrity. The cultivating, ornamenting, and showing off this little spot, formed his chief occupation and greatest pleasure. He reared a great profusion of flowers for his more elegant visiters, and chamomile, rhubarb, and other medicinal herbs, for his homely neighbours. He also supplied the tables of some gentlemen in the neighbourhood with honey. His bees, along with a dog and cat, of all which he was very fond, formed the whole of his live stock. This original cottage falling into disrepair, sir James Nasmyth ordered a new one, consisting of two separate dwellings under one roof, to be erected for him and his sister, in 1802, at a short distance from the former. This was constructed by masons under Davie's directions; but he built the new garden wall almost entirely with his own hands. His sister wished to have one outer door common to both apartments; but he insisted on having two separate ones, as they appear at present. The house was, accordingly, divided by a complete partition. Davie's door is about three feet and a half high, and he could stand upright below the lintel. It has a small chink for a window, with wooden shutters. He would not admit of glass in it. Mr. Ballantyne, the present farmer of Woodhouse, enlarged the garden at the same time; which addition it took Davie a whole year to put in order to his liking. He turned up the soil two feet and a half deep, clearing it of large stones, &c. His sister and he having frequently quarrelled, a sort of estrangement

took place between these two lonely beings. The sister, though no way deformed in her person, was never capable of regular employment from a degree of mental aberration. They were long the only persons in the parish, who received support from the poor's funds. The dwarf, however, derived the chief part of his subsistence from the gratuitous contributions of the neighbouring farmers and gentry, most of whom he occasionally visited. Davie's *meal-pock* also hung constantly in the mill, and every person who had a *melder* ground allotted a small portion of it for his use. These resources, together with occasional presents from strangers who visited his dwelling, and the vegetables which he produced by his horticulture, sufficed for all his little wants. The pecuniary donations he received were chiefly expended on snuff, which was almost his only luxury, and one in which he indulged to excess. He kept a whiskey bottle, too, and occasionally sold a little for some years, but was never known to be too free in the use of it himself. He died in December 1811, after an illness of three days. According to his own account, he was about 71 years of age at the time of his death; but it is believed that he was several years older. He had become very penurious in the latter part of his life. Although subsisting entirely on charity, about L. 20 was found in his chest at his death, the half of which was restored to the parish.

The garden still retains marks of its original neatness, but is now totally unpruned. His sister who is younger than Davie by some years, has become a good deal more deranged in her mind since his death. She never passes the night in the cottage, but resides there through the day, and sleeps at the farmer's, Mr. Ballantyne of Woodhouse. Of late a great many strangers call at the cottage, from whom she has received many charitable offerings. She cannot understand the cause of their great curiosity concerning her brother's history. She said to a friend of ours who visited the place a few weeks ago—'What gars folk speer sae mony questions about us? Our parents were mean, but there was nae ill anent them.'

We are enabled to present our readers with the following sketch of Davie's singular physiognomy, from an original drawing taken some time before his death by a very accomplished person who lived for many years in habits of frequent and familiar intercourse with him, and which we believe is a striking likeness. It will be found to differ in some slight particulars from the description of the novelist, who of course, was under no obligation to adhere rigidly or uniformly to his original materials in the delineation of either mental or physical qualities; yet the force and felicity with which he has in general transferred to his glowing canvass, not only the more striking characteristics, but often the minutest details, is altogether wonderful. So far as regards personal beauty, however, poor Davie has no great cause to complain of the appearance he exhibits, when arrayed in the wizard mantle of the Black Dwarf. The couplet in which Pope describes sir Richard

Blackmore, seems no longer hyperbolical when applied to Bowed Davie.

‘He was so ugly and so grim,
His shadow durst not follow him.’



His eyes, however, which were black, are said to have been fine. Of the rest of his person no accurate sketch, we believe, has ever been taken. It was still more remarkable, however, than his visage, and after many minute inquiries, we have no hesitation in adopting, almost without variation, the words of his fictitious historian, who, in the following description, is allowed to have given a pretty exact and unexaggerated portrait. ‘His body, thick and square, like that of a man of middle size, was mounted upon two large feet; but nature seemed to have forgotten the legs and the thighs, or they were so very short as to be hidden by the dress he wore. His arms were long and brawny, furnished with two muscular hands, and, when uncovered in the eagerness of his labour, were shagged with coarse black hair. It seemed as if nature had originally intended the separate parts of his body to be the members of a giant, but had afterwards capriciously assigned them to the person of a dwarf, so ill did the length of his arms and the iron strength of his frame, correspond with the shortness of his stature.’

His height was about three feet and a half. His skull, which was of an oblong and rather unusual shape, was of such strength that he could strike it with ease through the pannel of a door or the end of a tar-barrel. His laugh is said to have been quite hor-

rible; and his screech-owl voice, shrill, uncouth, and dissonant, corresponded well with his other peculiarities.

There was nothing very uncommon about his dress. He usually wore an old slouched hat when he went abroad; and when at home, a sort of cowl or nightcap, such as he is here represented with. He never wore shoes, being unable to adapt them to his mis-shapen fin-like feet, but always had both feet and legs quite concealed, and wrapt up with pieces of cloth. He always walked with a sort of pole or pike-staff considerably taller than himself.

His habits were in many respects singular, and indicated a mind sufficiently congenial to its uncouth tabernacle. A jealous misanthropical, and irritable temper, was his most prominent characteristic. The sense of his deformity haunted him like a phantom; and the insults and scorn to which this exposed him, had poisoned his heart with fierce and bitter feelings, which, from other traits in his character, do not appear to have been more largely infused into his original temperament than that of his fellow men. He detested children, on account of their propensity to insult and persecute him. To strangers he was generally reserved, crabbed, and surly, and though he by no means refused assistance or charity, he, on many occasions, neither expressed nor exhibited much gratitude. Even towards persons who had been his greatest benefactors, and who possessed the greatest share of his good will, he frequently displayed much caprice and jealousy. A lady, who knew him from her infancy, and who has furnished us in the most obliging manner with some particulars respecting him, says, that although Davie showed as much respect and attachment to her father's family as it was in his nature to show to any, yet they were always obliged to be very cautious in their deportment towards him. One day having gone to visit him with another lady, he took them through his garden, and was showing them with much pride and good humour, all his rich and tastefully-assorted borders, when they happened to stop near a plot of cabbages which had been somewhat injured by the caterpillars. Davie observing one of the ladies smile, instantly assumed his savage scowling aspect, rushed among the cabbages, and dashed them to pieces with his *kent*, exclaiming, 'I hate the worms, for they mock me.'

Another lady, likewise a friend and old acquaintance of his, very unintentionally gave him mortal offence on a similar occasion. Throwing back his jealous glance, he fancied he saw her spit at him. 'Am I a toad, woman! that ye spit at me—that ye spit at me!' he exclaimed with fury, and without listening to any answer, he drove her out of his garden with imprecations and insult. When irritated by persons for whom he entertained little respect, his misanthropy displayed itself in words and sometimes actions of still greater rudeness. He would then utter the most shocking imprecations, swear he would 'cleave them to the *harn-pans*'—'if he had but his *cran fingers* on them,' &c.

A farmer in the neighbourhood went one night, out of a frolic, to frighten Divie, but paid pretty dearly for his joke. He had assumed

the character of a robber, and pretended to be breaking into his hut. The dwarf after reconnoitering him from a small unglazed window, which he had near his chimney, wrenched a large stone out of the wall, dashed it down upon the assailant, and knocked him to the ground, where he lay for a while senseless and very severely hurt.

The lady to whose information we have just referred, mentions another anecdote which came within her own knowledge, and which may serve to illustrate the resolute and dogged perseverance of the dwarf. He had applied to Mr. Laidlaw of Hallyards for a branch of a tree which grew in the neighbourhood, to serve some purpose of his own. Mr. Laidlaw was always very ready to oblige Davie—but told him, that, on the present occasion, he could not grant his request, as it would injure the tree. Davie made no reply, but went away grumbling to himself. Next morning, some of Mr. Laidlaw's servants happened to be going from home so early as two o'clock, when, to their surprise and terror, they perceived through the gray twilight a strange figure struggling and dancing in the air below the said tree. Upon going up to the place they found it was Davie, who had contrived by some means to fasten a rope to the branch he wanted, and was swinging with all his weight upon it to break it down. They left him, and before he was again disturbed, he succeeded in bringing it to the ground, and carried it home with him.

He had a sort of strange pleasure in wandering out in the dark, and is said to have sometimes spent whole nights among the ruins of old buildings, and other places where spectres were believed to haunt; and he used to vaunt much of his courage and intrepidity in these adventures. With all this bravery he is known to have been extremely superstitious; and, to protect himself from witchcraft, he had planted a great deal of the rowan-tree, or mountain ash, around his dwelling. Upwards of forty of these trees were cut down in his garden after his death. It does not appear that he made any pretensions to warlockry, or that there was any strong suspicion of that nature respecting him among his neighbours, although a knowledge of his revengeful disposition impressed both young and old with a certain degree of fearful respect and awe of him. Davie spent much of his time in solitude, and when his garden did not require his care, would lie whole summer days by the side of a well, poring into the water. He also read a good deal when he could get books, and what is remarkable, was very fond of some parts of Shenstone's Pastoral Ballads, which he could repeat by heart. The sort of reading, however, in which he took greatest delight, was the adventures of Wallace and Bruce, and other popular tracts about Scottish heroes, the Highland clans, &c. He possessed a copy of Milton's *Paradise Lost*, some parts of which he read with much interest. He had also got hold of 'Tooke's Pantheon,' and had his head confusedly stored with the stories of the Heathen Mythology. His information, such as it was, appeared to great advantage when he mingled with the peasantry at

the mill or smithy. He was very satirical in his conversation; and his harsh creaking voice was there frequently heard much higher than the sound of the clapper, or the fore-hammer. He visited Peebles, the county town, occasionally, but very seldom went to church. He was supposed to entertain some very peculiar notions on religious subjects, but those who were intimate with him say that he would now and then speak concerning a future state, with great earnestness and good sense; and on such occasions, when his feelings were excited, would sometimes burst into tears.

Davie would rather appear to have had some ambition of posthumous honours. Perhaps Tooke's Pantheon might have inspired him with a thirst of immortality, or perchance he had some presentiment of his approaching apotheosis, under the plastic hands of a mighty magician,—a still more extraordinary and mysterious personage than himself—one who has not only raised up the spirits of the departed, but by disrobing them of the more vulgar and prosaic rags of their mortal state, and investing them with imposing and poetical qualities, has restored them to the world in a guise a thousand times more pleasing and picturesque, and yet scarcely less true to nature, than the reality itself. But, whether poor Davie possessed the second sight or not, it is certain that he long expressed a desire to be buried on a particular spot which he pointed out, and not in the church-yard among the '*common brush*,' as he expressed it. One of the motives assigned by him for this singular wish, was his aversion to have the clods clapped down upon him 'by such a fellow as Jock Somerville the *bell-man*.' This person he always detested, and would scarcely stay in his company, probably from a secret feeling of disgust, or disagreeable reminiscence, suggested by a certain resemblance which the grave-digger bore to himself in personal deformity,

He appears to have displayed no small portion of taste in the selection of his burial ground. It is described in a little tract now before us, as a 'beautiful mount called the Woodhill, which rises from a plain nearly in the center of the parish of Manor, skirted with a number of venerable old trees, and encircled by an amphitheatre of steep and lofty mountains, covered to the tops with heath, and having their sides broken and diversified by deep ravines, and rocky precipices. This picturesque little hill, rising abruptly in the middle of a delightful plain, with its deep green ferny summit crowned with a Druidical circle, and its declivities white with sheep; the silvery links of Manor Water winding at its base, through fertile haughs and fields of grain; the aged trees scattered here and there along the bottom of the precipitous hills, the wild abodes of the goat, the raven, the fox, and the falcon; and the dark summits of the farther mountains towering over all,—present a burst of upland scenery not unworthy of arresting the notice of the traveller, even although it had never possessed the additional attraction of having been the residence of the illustrious Ferguson,

as well as of the eccentric dwarf of Manor Water.* The eccentric dwarf, as the same writer states, also requested that a clump of *rowan-tree* might be planted above his grave on Woodhill. A promise to this effect was given him. But he changed his mind on his death-bed, and was 'gathered to his fathers' like a decent christian, in the church-yard of Manor.

ART. VII.—*Anecdote of Gustavus Vasa, King of Sweden.*

[The coincidence between the following example of feminine sympathy and presence of mind, and that in page 310 is so striking and curious, and redounds so highly to the credit of the female character, that we feel peculiar pleasure in extracting it for the gratification of our readers.]

AFTER the death of Steno, the administrator, and the bosom friend of Gustavus, and the consequent murder of the senate, and a price being set on his own head, the future deliverer of Sweden retired to the mountains of Dalecarlia, hoping he might hide himself in the woods with which that country is covered, and imagining that it would not be difficult to stimulate the inhabitants to revolt against the tyrant Christiern, as they had always shown themselves averse to the Danish yoke. At that time there was not one good town in the whole province, and hardly any thing but small villages situated on the borders of the forests, or on the banks of lakes and rivers. Some of these villages depended on the noblemen of the country, but most belonged to the crown, and were governed by the peasants themselves; the elders supplying the places of judges and captains. The national government durst not send either troops or garrisons into this province; nor did the kings themselves ever enter it in a legal manner till they had given pledge to the mountaineers to retain their privileges. On these independent people, therefore, Gustavus placed a firm confidence.

Disguising himself as a peasant, he set forth on his way to Dalecarlia, accompanied by a boor who was to be his guide. He crossed over the whole country of Sudermania, then passed between Mericia and Westmonia, and after the fatigues of a long and dangerous journey, arrived safe among the mountains. He had no sooner entered the province, than he was abandoned by his guide, who absconded, robbing him of all the money he had provided for his subsistence. He wandered up and down amongst these dreadful deserts, destitute of friends and money, not daring to own that he was even a gentleman. At length the inhabitants, then hardly more civilized than savages, proposed to him to work for his livelihood. To conceal himself from discovery, and to support nature, he accordingly hired himself to labour in the mines at Fahlun, and for a long course of time did he toil in these cav-

* 'A short account of David Ritchie, with an elegy on his death: printed for the author, July 1816.' This is curious, as having been in print some little time before the *Tales of my Landlord* appeared. But it was never published, and the author, whom we have conversed with, does not imagine that any of the few copies which he privately distributed could possibly have found their way to the hands of either Mr. Peter Pattieson, or his learned and worthy patron, the Schoolmaster of Gandercleugh.

erns, and breathe as his common element the air, one respiration of which seemed to bring me the summons of death.

Near Fahlun, on a little hill, stands a very ancient habitation, of so simple an architecture, that you would have taken it for a hind's cottage, instead of a place that, in times of old, had been the abode of nobility. It consists of a long barn-like structure formed of fir, covered in a strange fashion with scales, and odd ornamental twistings in the carved wood. But the spot was hallowed by the virtues of its heroic mistress, who saved, by her presence of mind, the life of the future deliverer of her country. The following are the circumstances alluded to; and most of them were communicated to me under the very roof.

Gustavus, having, by an evil accident, been discovered in the mines, and after being narrowly betrayed by a Swedish nobleman, bent his course towards this house, then inhabited by a person of the name of Pearson (or Peterson) whom he had known in the armies of the late administrator. Here, he hoped, from the obligations he had formerly laid on the officer, that he should at least find a safe retreat. Pearson received him with every mark of friendship; nay, treated him with that respect and submission which noble minds are proud to pay to the truly great, when robbed of their external honours. He seemed more afflicted by the misfortunes of Gustavus, than that prince was for himself; and exclaimed with such vehemence against the Danes, that, instead of awaiting a proposal to take up arms, he offered, unasked, to try the spirit of the mountaineers; and declared that himself and his vassals would be the first to set an example, and turn out under the command of his beloved general.

Gustavus was rejoiced to find that he had at last found a man who was not afraid to draw his sword in the defence of his country, and endeavoured by the most impressive arguments, and the prospect of a suitable recompense for the personal risks he ran, to confirm him in so generous a resolution. Pearson answered with repeated assurances of fidelity; he named the gentlemen and the leading persons among the peasants whom he hoped to engage in the enterprize. Gustavus relied on his word, and promising not to name himself to any while he was absent, some days afterwards saw him leave the house to put his design in execution.

It was indeed a design, and a black one. Under the specious cloak of a zealous affection for Gustavus, the traitor was contriving his ruin. The hope of making his court to the Danish tyrant, and the expectation of a large reward, made this son of Judas resolve to sacrifice his honour to his ambition, and, for the sake of a few ducats, violate the most sacred laws of hospitality, by betraying his guest. In pursuance of that base resolution, he went straight to one of Christiern's officers commanding in the province, and informed him that Gustavus was his prisoner. Having committed this treachery, he had not courage to face his victim; and telling the Dane how to surprise the prince, who, he said, believing himself to be under the protection of a friend, (shame to manhood, to

dare to confess that he could betray such a confidence!) he proposed taking a wider circuit home, while they, apparently unknown to him, rifled it of its treasure. 'It will be an easy matter,' said he, 'for not even my wife knows that it is Gustavus.'

Accordingly, the officer, at the head of a party of soldiers, marched directly to the place. The men invested the house,* while the leader, abruptly entering, found Pearson's wife, according to the fashion of those days, employed in culinary preparations. At some distance from her sat a young man in a rustic garb, lopping off the knots from the broken branch of a tree. The officer went up to her, and told her he came in King Christiern's name to demand the rebel Gustavus, who he knew was concealed under her roof. The dauntless woman never changed colour; she immediately guessed the man whom her husband had introduced as a miner's son, to be the Swedish hero. The door was blocked up by soldiers. In an instant she replied, without once glancing at Gustavus, who sat motionless with surprise, 'If you mean the melancholy gentleman my husband has had here these few days, he has just walked out into the wood on the other side of the hill. Some of these soldiers may readily seize him, as he has no arms with him.'

The officer did not suspect the easy simplicity of her manner; and ordered part of the men to go in quest of him. At that moment, suddenly turning her eyes on Gustavus, she flew up to him, and catching the stick out of his hand, exclaimed, in an angry voice: 'Unmannerly wretch! What, sit before your betters? Don't you see the king's officers in the room? Get out of my sight, or some of them shall give you a drubbing!' As she spoke, she struck him a blow on the back with all her strength; and opening a side-door, 'there, get into the scullery,' cried she, 'its the fittest place for such company!' and giving him another knock, she flung the stick after him, and shut the door. 'Sure,' added she, in a great heat, 'never woman was plagued with such a lout of a slave!'

The officer begged she would not disturb herself on his account: but she, affecting great reverence for the king, and respect for his representative, prayed him to enter her parlour while she brought some refreshment. The Dane civilly complied; perhaps glad enough to get from the side of a shrew; and she immediately hastened to

* So strongly was I impressed with the history of this great Prince, even more invincible in mind than in arms, that I looked on the house which had once sheltered him, and in which female nobleness had also shone so conspicuously, with a kind of holy veneration. We entered this interesting place attended by an old woman, who lives in an adjoining house for the purpose of showing strangers this relic of antiquity. The room in which Gustavus slept, with his very bed, is most sacredly preserved. The hero's couch is a huge unwieldy square frame of common fir, with a straw mattress: he had no softer pillow. The present proprietor, a descendant from the fair patriot, guards these remains with scrupulous care. Of the authenticity of the adventure no doubt can exist; I had it from the first authority.

Gustavus, whom she had bolted in, and by means of a back passage, conducted him in a moment to an out-house, which projecting from the side of the house close to the bank of the lake where the fisher's boats lay, she lowered him down a convenient aperture; and giving him a direction to an honest curate across the lake, committed him to Providence.

While he made his way to a boat, unmoored it, and rowed swiftly towards the isles, so hiding himself and his course amongst their mazes; the lady returned to the Dane laden with provisions, and amused him by a well-spread table till the soldiers brought back the disappointing intelligence, that their search had been fruitless. The observations of the officer, and his new directions, soon apprised the heroic woman of the vileness of her husband; and therefore when he appeared, which was shortly afterwards, even to him she kept true to her first statement, that Gustavus had gone out into the wood. The circumstance of the chastised servant seemed so insignificant to the officer; that, as it had occasioned in him no suspicion, he never mentioned it. And as guilt easily believes itself suspected, Pearson acknowledged with vexation to the Dane, that he had no doubt Gustavus had suspected his design, being aware, notwithstanding their mutual friendship, of his impregnable fidelity to Christiern (*measureless liar!*); and had accordingly taken the opportunity of his absence, to escape. As none were in the lady's confidence, the new retreat of Gustavus remained undiscovered, till assisted by the good curate, and other friends to liberty, he appeared openly at the head of the brave Dalecarlians, and gave his country freedom.

R. K. Porter's Travels in Sweden and Russia, vol. 2.

ART. VIII. *Some Remarks on the Deterioration of the Climate of Britain, with an attempt to point out its Cause.*

[From the Journal of Science and the Arts.]

THAT for several centuries past the climate of England has undergone a very material change for the worse, appears demonstrated by the most irresistible historical evidence; nor can there indeed be a doubt that the springs are now later, and the summers shorter, and that those seasons are colder and more humid than they were in the youthful days of many persons, and those not very aged, who are now alive. We learn from our old chronicles, that the grape has formerly been cultivated in England, for the manufacture of wine, but we now know that even with much care and attention it can scarcely be brought to ripen a scanty crop, under walls exposed to the sun, sheltered from cold wind, and in every respect in the most favourable aspect; and it would be folly to attempt its growth in the method of a vineyard, as a standard. Of this real luxury of more genial climes, we have so long been deprived, that we trouble ourselves little about those golden days when Bacchus smiled upon our hills. But what may be considered as coming more home to the business and bosoms of the present generation is, that Pomona is about to desert our orchards, and

that on ground where the clustering vine once flourished, the apple has of late years scarcely ripened. Indeed we are informed upon good authority, that it is now sixteen years since the orchards have afforded a plentiful crop. It is really melancholy to think that at no very remote period our posterity may in all probability be in the same situation in regard to cyder, that we are now placed in with respect to wine; when the apple tree, like the vine, will only afford a penurious supply of sour fruit, and will be cultivated in forcing houses to supply the tables of the rich.

Lest, however, we should be set down among the screech-owls of mankind, whose race, we are sorry to say, shews no symptoms of extinction, and who make it their business 'to lessen the little comforts, and shorten the short pleasures of our condition by painful remembrances of the past, or melancholy prognostics of the future;' we shall now beg leave to give our readers a few facts connected with this change of climate, which may perhaps throw a little light upon the subject, and tend to exhibit the cause of those effects which we have just deplored.

It is demonstrable, that in the northern parts of our hemisphere the mean annual temperature is on the decline, and on recurring to the accounts of modern travellers, it appears that in mountainous parts of Europe the accumulation of ice and snow is very sensibly increasing. This is perhaps particularly the case, and easily observable, in the vicinity of Mont Blanc; and the glaciers, which descending from the summits of that and the adjoining peaks, invade the adjacent valley of Chamouny, are making such progress as to threaten at no very remote period, to render the heart of that district inaccessible to the traveller. In a recent number of the '*Bibliothèque des Sciences et des Arts*,' Professor Pictet informs us, that the Glacier des Bossons has very lately advanced fifty feet; much to the dismay of the neighbouring villagers. But if we resort to more northern climes we shall find yet more alarming evidence of the great increase of snow and ice, and of this, the history of Greenland furnishes perhaps the most remarkable facts upon record. We know that that country, which was probably first peopled by Europeans from Iceland, received its name from its verdant appearance, and that the original colony continued to prosper, and to carry on an extensive commerce with Norway, until the beginning of the 15th century, since which period all communication with East Greenland has ceased, and what was once known respecting it is almost buried in oblivion. Since that period too, the east coast of Greenland, which once was perfectly accessible, has become blockaded by an immense collection of ice, so that till within these few months no vessels could approach near enough even to see land in that direction.

The following quotation from Fabricius* will, we presume, furnish satisfactory proof of the great increase of the inland ice of Greenland, and seems particularly apposite to our present purpose.

* Nye Samling af det Kongelige Danske Videnskabers Selskabs Skrifter. T. iii. 1788.

‘The land-ice (Fisbræc) in Greenland is one of the most remarkable phenomena in nature, and in extent far exceeds any other hitherto known, running from one end of the country to the other, and covering it with an eternal ice, leaving only some tops of mountains, which rise black and naked above it. When you ascend any of the highest mountains free from ice on the sea-coast, a dreadful view is presented. As far as the eye can reach, in every direction nothing is seen but a glittering surface, which merits the appellation of an icy ocean.

‘The ice is extending every year, increasing in height as well as breadth, and has already occupied the greatest part of the country. When it meets with high mountains it is checked in its progress till it has reached an equal height, and then proceeds farther without obstruction. An experiment has been made of placing a pole in the earth at a considerable distance from the line of ice, and that place has been found occupied by the ice the following year. Its progress is indeed so rapid that Greenlanders, who are still living, remember their fathers hunting rein-deer among naked mountains, which are now completely covered with ice. I have myself seen foot-paths leading to the inland of this part of the country, which are now obstructed by glaciers. It is chiefly in the valleys that the ice is accumulating, and where these reach the sea, and the inner part of the bay, the ice projects in large blocks over the water. Part of the ice appears to be even and smooth, particularly in the middle, but a part of it very uneven, especially at the extremities towards the naked land, and in those places, where small hillocks have been covered. But if you proceed farther on the ice, that which seemed to be even, consists of vallies with several strata. There are also a number of rents of different widths, and so deep that the eye seeks the bottom in vain. That part of the ice which appeared to be uneven is nothing but projecting hillocks with deep ravines, where it is impossible to proceed, and which bear the appearance of the sea in most violent motion, instantly congealed. If you look down into the rents or observe the ice at the extremities, you find the lower stratum of a blue colour, which is darker towards the bottom, but towards the surface, the colour is lighter, the uppermost stratum having its natural whiteness. The noise of water-falls is heard in some of the rents, and a thundering sound is frequently heard under your feet, when a new rent is made. On inspecting the extremity of the ice, when it is forming in low places, you will find it undermining the ground and pushing it aside as if it were by a plough. This detritus lies collected in heaps all along the sides of the ice, like walls, and at the first breaking up of the ice is sunk into it for ever. In many places entire lakes are filled and rivers stopped up; the ice spares nothing.

‘The blocks of ice, that form a continuation of the land-ice and project over the water in the inner parts of the bays, are yearly increasing. The sea below throws its waves over them, and makes such excavations, that in many places large poles of ice are hang-

ing down at the sides, having the appearance of pipes of organs, and in other places it forms immense arches. In proportion, as these blocks increase above and become heavier, and the excavations below are extended, immense masses are precipitated into the water. Many bays are really deep enough to receive such ice mountains. As one mass falls down, that which is behind is carried along with it, and thus one follows the other with a tremendous cracking noise, like a heavy cannonade. The sea, as is easily imagined, is thereby put into a violent motion, and overflows the land to a great height, and this inundation is felt at the distance of several miles. It has even happened that tents pitched at a considerable distance from the sea have been carried away and the people have perished. Boats are also in great danger.

‘Such masses of ice are at first precipitated deep in the water, and returning to the surface continue for a long time in motion. Sometimes they are united to the flat ice in the bays of congelation, and thus remain surrounded by it for a time, or they break in their fall the ice which is already formed there.

‘Another circumstance which increases these mountains, is that in some places there are large lakes above the ice blocks, discharging their water through openings under them. Round the edges of the lakes are hanging pieces of ice, which in the above-described manner are precipitated into them. They are then driven to the mouth of the opening, through which the smaller pieces are carried down into the sea, but the larger ones block up the opening, by which not only the water is stopped, but also the other masses of ice. The water rising higher detaches still more of those pieces, and the lake is at last so full of them, that they break a new channel. Thus the masses that were heaped one upon the other are hurled into the sea, accompanied by a continual thundering noise. The sea is put into terrible commotion, and the inhabitants in the neighbourhood, when they hear this roaring, expect to see the whole bay blocked up with ice.

‘If the ice mountains remain for some time under the projecting blocks of ice (which depends on the state of the wind and the current) their size is then increased, and they rise to a terrible height, assuming the most curious shapes. At last they are driven from one bay into another, or they advance into the sea and float about in Davis’s Strait, till by moving southwards they are dissolved in more temperate latitudes. I do not mean to say that all ice mountains in Davis’s Strait have their origin in Greenland, for some of them probably came from more distant regions; but I think it most probable that the greatest part of this sort of ice has been detached from the western coast, and from the eastern coast of Greenland which they call old Greenland.’

From this and other evidence which might be adduced, it is clear that the quantity of ice in the northern regions has undergone a very considerable and even rapid increase, and we are of opinion that this circumstance is sufficient to account for that deterioration of our climate which we set out with deploring, and which, if the

same causes continue to act, is equally threatening to our, at present, more fortunate neighbours upon the continent of Europe.

It now becomes a question whether there are any hopes of amendment; whether matters may not take a turn the other way; and whether, by the gradual breaking up of the ice, the climate of this part of Europe may not regain its former state. In favour of this idea, it seems in the first place highly improbable, from what we know of the beneficent adjustments of Nature, that there should be no remedy or compensation provided for so great an evil; but, secondly, it seems that within the last year a very notable relaxation of the cold has actually taken place. East Greenland, as we have before mentioned, has not only been inaccessible, but even invisible for a long period; but last year it was observed by one of the whalers, that the ice had there suffered a most astonishing decrease; that about two thousand square leagues had disappeared, and that land was again visible. We learn too from Copenhagen, that intelligence was there received in August last, that the ice which from time immemorial had interrupted the communication with East Greenland had vanished. It is further probable that the process of thawing is going on to a yet greater extent further north, for the ice islands met with in the Atlantic are almost entirely conveyed thither by the southern current, which constantly runs in Davis's Strait, and they were last year much more numerous than usual—many, and large ones, were even seen in 42° south latitude in the summer and autumn of 1816, and we think it by no means improbable that the extreme chillness of that season may in great measure be referred to these visitors from the north; for the south-west winds could not but have been chilled by passing over these frozen masses. We think there is one other remark worth recording, though we would not be understood to lay any stress upon its reference to, or connexion with, the more propitious state of weather that we now look for—it is, that at the very time we heard of the thawing of the northern ice, and a consequent probability of the return of these regions to their former state, the westward variation of the magnetic needle began to decline, and it has already retrograded some degrees towards due north.*

ART. IX.—*Books Republished.*

Characters of Shakspeare's Plays, by William Hazlitt.

The French we believe have boasted that they were the first to discern the merits of Milton and Newton, and that those authors enjoyed great celebrity on the Continent while their names were almost totally unknown in their native land. Whether this be true or otherwise, it is certain that the most judicious and at the same time the most rapturous admirer of Shakspeare is the German

* From America, too, we learn, that in consequence of the coldness of the seasons, Indian corn will no longer ripen in New England, and that the farmers have consequently taken to the cultivation of wheat, which has succeeded so well, as to render it likely to supersede maize.

critic Schlegel. In his excellent lectures on the Drama he has gone more fully and deeply into the subject, than any of the thousand commentators before him, who have 'held their farthing candles to the sun' of Shakspeare. The peculiar characteristics of this great master, his profound and intimate acquaintance with nature in her highest and lowest walks; his humour and pathos; his admirable discrimination of character, and his absolute dominion over the minds of his readers, have never been better described or more rationally accounted for, than by this German writer. And yet there is scarcely a book, in the current English literature, that we should suppose less intelligible to foreigners in consequence of the obsolescence of many of the words, and the prevalence of local idioms and allusions. 'The divinity, however, that 'stirred within him,' has triumphed over these obstacles, and the language of nature is as well understood on the borders of the Rhine as on the banks of the Avon. Mr. Hazlitt, it seems, feeling a little piqued that a foreigner should have all the credit of a philosophical criticism upon an English author, set down to prove that his countrymen are able to give reasons of their own for their idolatry. He has accordingly produced the book before us, and although we think that he has in some instances pushed his religious worship to the verge of superstition, and in others displayed no less fanaticism, yet upon the whole it is an eloquent and sensible book, containing perhaps next to Schlegel's, the best analysis of the characters of Shakspeare's heroes that has yet appeared. Each play is considered separately, its beauties pointed out, and its dramatis personae compared and contrasted with the preceding and subsequent ones. New lights are thus frequently shed upon the characters whom we had been accustomed to contemplate in a different point of view, and although we are often disposed to think that this commentator like many others, 'sees in Shakspeare more than Shakspeare knew,' yet he has given still oftener such good 'reasons for his faith,' that we rise from the perusal with a much higher opinion of the genius of the poet, than we had before entertained. Of Mr. Hazlitt's style, which is peculiar to himself and two or three others of the school of Leigh Hunt, we do not know exactly what to say. It has a kind of homely simplicity and freshness about it, and at the same time a profusion of similes and allusions, which remind us forcibly of the writers of the age of Shakspeare, but unfortunately the effort at simplicity and natural expression has often an appearance of labour, which renders it awkward and rather ludicrous. The following sentences furnish a fair example of the manner in which this author's ideas 'jostle each other' (as he says of Shakspeare) when the stream of natural expression is a little forced out of its channel. He is comparing Chaucer with Shakspeare.

'No one could have more depth of feeling or observation than Chaucer, but he wanted resources of invention to lay open the stores of nature or the human heart with the same radiant light, that Shakspeare has done. However fine or profound the thought, we know what is coming, whereas the effect of reading Shakspeare is "like the eye of vas-

salage encountering majesty." Chaucer's mind was consecutive, rather than discursive. He arrived at truth through a certain process; Shakspeare saw every thing by intuition. Chaucer had great variety of power, but he could do only one thing at once. He set himself to work on a particular subject. His ideas were kept separate, labelled, ticketed, and parcelled out in a set form, in pews and compartments by themselves. They did not play into one another's hands. They did not re-act upon one another, as the blower's breath moulds the yielding glass. There is something hard and dry in them. What is the most wonderful thing in Shakspeare's faculties is their excessive sociability, and how they gossiped and compared notes together.'

Of his better manner the following is a favorable specimen.

'We have heard it objected to *ROMEO* and *JULIET*, that it is founded on an idle passion between a boy and a girl, who have scarcely seen and can have but little sympathy or rational esteem for one another, who have had no experience of the good or ills of life, or whose raptures or despair must be therefore equally groundless and fantastical. Whoever objects to the youth of the parties in this play as "too unripe and crude" to pluck the sweets of love, and wishes to see a first love carried on into a good old age, and the passions taken at the rebound, when their force is spent, may find all this done in the *Stranger* and in other German plays, where they do things by contraries, and transpose nature to inspire sentiment and create philosophy. Shakspeare proceeded in a more straight, forward, and, we think, effectual way. He did not endeavour to extract beauty from wrinkles, or the wild throb of passion from the last expiring sigh of indifference. He did not "gather grapes of thorns, nor figs of thistles." It was not his way. But he has given a picture of human life, such as it is in the order of nature. He has founded the passion of the two lovers not on the pleasures they had experienced, but on all the pleasures they had *not* experienced. All that was to come of life was theirs. At that untried source of promised happiness they slaked their thirst, and the first eager draught made them drunk with love and joy. They were in full possession of their senses and their affections. Their hopes were of air, their desires of fire. Youth is the season of love, because the heart is then first melted in tenderness from the touch of novelty, and kindled to rapture, for it knows no end of its enjoyments or its wishes. Desire has no limit but itself. Passion, the love and expectation of pleasure, is infinite, extravagant, inexhaustible, till experience comes to check and kill it. Juliet exclaims on her first interview with Romeo—

"My bounty is as boundless as the sea,
My love as deep."

And why should it not? What was to hinder the thrilling tide of pleasure, which had just gushed from her heart, from flowing on without stint or measure, but experience which she was yet without? What was to abate the transport of the first sweet sense of pleasure, which her heart and her senses had just tasted, but indifference which she was yet a stranger to? What was there to check the ardour of hope, of faith, of constancy, just rising in her breast, but disappointment which she had not yet felt? As are the desires and the hopes of youthful passion, such is the keenness of its disappointments, and their baleful effect. Such is the transition in this play from the highest bliss to the

lowest despair, from the nuptial couch to an untimely grave. The only evil that even in apprehension befalls the two lovers is the loss of the greatest possible felicity; yet this loss is fatal to both, for they had rather part with life than bear the thought of surviving all that had made life dear to them. In all this, Shakspeare has but followed nature, which existed in his time, as well as now. The modern philosophy, which reduces the whole theory of the mind to habitual impressions, and leaves the natural impulses of passion and imagination out of the account, had not then been discovered; or if it had, would have been little calculated for the uses of poetry.'

We could make many other extracts creditable to the author's eloquence and sound sense, but the following remarks on the character of Hamlet are all that we have room for.

' This is that Hamlet the Dane, whom we read of in our youth, and whom we seem almost to remember in our after years; he who made that famous soliloquy on life, who gave the advice to the players, who thought "this goodly frame, the earth, a steril promontory, and this brave o'erhanging firmament, the air, this majestical roof fretted with golden fire, a foul and pestilent congregation of vapours;" whom "man delighted not, nor woman neither;" he who talked with the gravediggers, and moralized on Yorick's skull; the schoolfellow of Rosencraus and Guildenstern at Wittenberg; the friend of Horatio; the lover of Ophelia; he that was mad and sent to England; the slow avenger of his father's death; who lived at the court of Horwendillus five hundred years before we were born, but all whose thoughts we seem to know as well as we do our own, because we have read them in Shakspeare.

' Hamlet is a name: his speeches and sayings but the idle coinage of the poet's brain. What then, are they not real? They are as real as our own thoughts. Their reality is in the reader's mind. It is *we* who are Hamlet. This play has a prophetic truth, which is above that of history. Whoever has become thoughtful and melancholy, through his own mishaps or those of others; whoever has borne about with him the clouded brow of reflection, and thought himself "too much i' th' sun;" whoever has seen the golden lamp of day dimmed by envious mists rising in his own breast, and could find in the world before him only a dull blank with nothing left remarkable in it; whoever has known "the pangs of despised love, the insolence of office, or the spurns which patient merit of the unworthy takes;" he who has felt his mind sink within him, and sadness cling to his heart like a malady, who has had his hopes blighted and his youth staggered by the apparitions of strange things; who cannot be well at ease, while he sees evil hovering near him like a spectre; whose powers of action have been eaten up by thought, he to whom the universe seems infinite, and himself nothing; whose bitterness of soul makes him careless of consequences, and who goes to a play as his best resource to shove off, to a second remove, the evils of life by a mock representation of them—this is the true Hamlet.

' We have been so used to this tragedy that we hardly know how to criticise it any more than we should know how to describe our own faces. But we must make such observations as we can. It is the one of Shakspeare's plays that we think of oftenest, because it abounds most in striking reflections on human life, and because the distresses of Hamlet are transferred, by the turn of his mind, to the general account of humanity. Whatever happens to him, we apply to ourselves, be-

cause he applies it so himself as a means of general reasoning. He is a great moralizer; and what makes him worth attending to is, that he moralizes on his own feelings and experience. He is not a commonplace pedant. If *Lear* shews the greatest depth of passion, HAMLET is the most remarkable for the ingenuity, originality, and unstudied development of character. Shakspeare had more magnanimity than any other poet, and he has shewn more of it in this play than in any other. There is no attempt to force an interest; every thing is left for time and circumstances to unfold. The attention is excited without effort, the incidents succeed each other as matters of course, the characters think, and speak, and act, just as they might do, if left entirely to themselves. There is no set purpose, no straining at a point. The observations are suggested by the passing scene—the gusts of passion come and go like sounds of musick borne on the wind. The whole play is an exact transcript of what might be supposed to have taken place at the court of Denmark, at the remote period of time fixed upon, before the modern refinements in morals and manners were heard of. It would have been interesting enough to have been admitted as a by-stander in such a scene, at such a time, to have heard and seen something of what was going on. But here we are more than spectators. We have not only ‘the outward pageants and the signs of grief;’ but ‘we have that within which passes shew.’ We read the thoughts of the heart, we catch the passions living as they rise. Other dramatick writers give us very fine versions and paraphrases of nature: but Shakspeare, together with his own comments, gives us the original text, that we may judge for ourselves. This is a very great advantage.’

Rosabella; a novel. 3 vols.

The writer of this production is, we are told, distinguished in the sentimental world by his former novels, which have duly passed muster at the circulating libraries, and given great satisfaction to many ingenious young gentlemen. Not having had the good luck to peruse them, we are of course unable to decide whether ‘*Rosabella*’ be equal or inferior to ‘*Santo Sebastiano*.’

To tell the plain truth we are hardly competent to form an opinion upon the work before us, as notwithstanding all our efforts to the contrary, the overpowering influence of Morpheus had sealed up our faculties before we had finished the first volume. We would recommend to the author the propriety of mixing in his future works, some spell or conjuration, by which the power of this cunning enchanter may be defeated. Like ‘*Deformed*’ he has been ‘a vile thief this seven year,’ and we think it advisable with honest Dogberry that he should be ‘comprehended as a vagron.’

Manners; a novel, in 2 vols.

This is one of those works which can neither be praised nor blamed in the superlative degree. The author has displayed some knowledge of human nature, but it appears to be rather drawn from observation upon books than upon mankind. ‘*Integros haurire fontes*’ is reserved only for a fortunate few; the rest must be contented to ‘pour from the vials’ of their predecessors into their own.

The characters are accordingly somewhat commonplace and the incidents not very new; neither are we perhaps sufficiently moved

by the touches of the pathetic introduced in it. The book is notwithstanding these defects amusing; and although we would not insure its life for twelve months under a very high premium (if the expression be allowed,) yet we have no doubt it will be considerably admired for a time.

The quotations of all descriptions, English, French and Latin, are uncommonly numerous, and we suspect from the number of the latter, and the prevalence of legal allusions, that the author is of the masculine gender, and an acquaintance of those matters of-fact persons, John Doe and Richard Roe.

Letters from a Mother to a Daughter, by Mrs. Taylor and Jane Taylor.

The authors of this useful little work have heretofore done great service to a considerable part of the reading community by the plain and practical morality as well as good taste and good sense evinced in their writings. The one now before us is of the same nature and has the same characteristics. If the rising generation be not the nearest to perfection of any that have existed since the golden age, it will certainly not be for want of information and advice in every shape. No pains have been spared to diminish the friction on the high road of instruction, and the by ways and short cuts to the great object are innumerable. Children are now taught their letters in the most palatable way through the medium of gingerbread, and even their sports and games in this scientific age are made the vehicles of philosophical ideas. The great doctrines of morals too are inculcated in a way to suit all capacities, and carried through a thousand channels into the public mind. The medium chosen by these authors for the conveyance of their ideas is a very good one, and we recommend it to our younger readers as far more useful reading than the fanatical tracts with which the dwellings of the poor are inundated.

The Quakers; a tale, by Elizabeth B. Lester.

We believe this to be Miss Lester's first appearance on the literary stage, and if she will take our advice, it will be her last. Encouraged we presume by the success of Miss More and Miss Edgeworth, she has abandoned that respectable and we think more appropriate weapon, the needle, and left the delineation of figures on a sampler for that of characters in a novel. She should remember however that as 'non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum,' so it does not fall to the lot of every female to possess the talents which have elevated the ladies, of whom we have spoken, to the highest rank in literature. The vanity of authorship and the servile love of imitation have spoiled many a good semstress, and diverted to the composition of romances, hands that would have been more suitably employed in the manufacture of puddings. In the very respectable work of the old fashioned Mrs. Glasse, which we fear our author is not in the habit of perusing, it is recommended to her readers to purchase or procure the articles intended to be dressed previous to performing that operation upon them. We would seriously advise Miss Lester to a similar course in her next

undertaking, as in the present she has displayed an uncommon degree of ignorance of the language and character of the worthy sect she has introduced. Middling authors are sure to caricature when they attempt to draw likenesses. Being deficient in the knowledge of those finer touches, by which a character is often successfully hit off, they are reduced to the necessity of making their figures outrè in order to draw the public attention to them. This appears to be Miss Lester's case, and whether her book was intended as a satire or a panegyric, we think it has equally failed.

Memoirs of the life of David Garrick; by Thomas Davies. 2 vols.

This though not a very new is a very amusing and interesting book, full of anecdotes of the great man whose life is recorded, as well as of his contemporaries, and gratifying in many other particulars to the lovers of the drama. To the latter and all who are fond of light reading we recommend it as a very entertaining work.

Tales of Wonder, of Humour, and of Sentiment, &c. by Anna and Anabella Plumptre. 2 vols.

'Promising,' says Shakspeare, 'is the very air o' the time. Performance argues a great sickness on the judgment of him that does it.' If this be true the judgment of the Miss Plumptres needs no physician, for we are not certain that we ever met with a book the contents of which were so plainly at variance with its title. We opened the volumes with great expectation of finding something to compensate for the labour to which our unfortunate vocation exposes us, and closed them with a strong desire of knowing what ideas these ladies attach to the three substantives they have placed in the title page. Of Sentiment we are so old fashioned as not to know the meaning, at least as we find it used in many of the works of the day, of Humour we have been unable to discover the slightest traces, and the only Wonder excited in our minds is that this book could have been composed, or at least acknowledged by maiden ladies. The first tale in the work is called Zelis; under which of the heads the authors ranked it we are at a loss to discover. We presume however it is of the sentimental order, as we find the hero in many *delicate* (the old phrase was *indelicate*) situations, the particulars of which are expressed with becoming warmth. As a sample of the manner with which these English ladies treat of the amours of their hero, we refer our readers to p. 24—5 of the first volume. We have indeed no less than three intrigues in about the same number of pages. What is not indelicate indeed in these tales is very commonplace. The work is fortunately too dull to be hurtful, but nevertheless we cannot help expressing for the fiftieth time, our surprise that such books are reprinted in this country, while so many sensible and valuable English volumes are inaccessible to the great majority of readers from their enormous price.

ART. X.—*An Eulogium in commemoration of Doctor Caspar Wistar*, late President of the American Philosophical Society held at Philadelphia for promoting useful knowledge. Delivered before the Society, pursuant to their appointment, in the German Lutheran church in Fourth street, in the city of Philadelphia, on the 11th day of March, 1818. By the Hon. William Tilghman, chief justice of the supreme court of the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, one of the Vice-Presidents of the Society. Published by order. Philadelphia. E. Earle.

An Eulogium on Caspar Wistar, M. D. Professor of Anatomy, by Charles Caldwell, M. D. Professor of Natural History, in the University of Pennsylvania. Delivered by appointment, before the members of the Philadelphia Medical Society; and published at their request. Philadelphia. Thomas Dobson and Son.

THE loss of Dr. Wistar, as it excited in the learned societies to which he belonged, the most profound regret, called forth at the same time a correspondent desire to honor his memory, and record the qualifications by which he was distinguished. Such commemorations of character are attended with the best effects. To youth, they afford an insight of those studies and pursuits by which eminence is attained,—to age, they confirm the benefits of perseverance, and the hope of its reward; acting, in both cases, as an incentive to exertion. The mind of man is prone to value the good opinion of others; to point out the means of acquiring it, is therefore one among other numerous recommendations of public testimony to departed merit. In order to promote a just conception of those standards of excellence which they described, as well as to encourage imitation, the French Academy long since adopted the practice on the demise of a member, of appointing one of its body to pronounce an Eulogy on the literary or scientific character of the deceased. If on these occasions praise has, in any instance been extravagantly bestowed, the uses of such a practice are not diminished in a society singularly select and limited in its composition; and it cannot be denied, that, by it, much valuable information on the different pursuits of literature and science has been preserved, much history of the human mind, and of the influence of events in the impulse and determination of genius, has been disseminated, affording light to successive generations on the true sources of intellectual distinction.

It was with much satisfaction therefore, that we learnt the determination of the learned societies before whom, and a numerous and fashionable audience these orations were delivered, to appoint one of their members respectively to such a duty. The eulogium of the learned judge is replete with judicious and feeling reflection. It is written in a style of classical elegance, and contains many just and striking truths on the dignity of philosophical pursuits. It sets out with deploring the loss of him whose virtues they were met to celebrate, and vindicates the utility of approbation publicly expressed on the qualities of the meritorious dead.

‘Deeply impressed with the merit of their deceased president, they have resolved, that his talents and his virtues shall be held up to public view. To him, indeed, this is now of no concern. The breath of praise, so sweet to the living, no longer reaches him. But in a world abounding in temptation, it is necessary that men should be stimulated to virtue, not only by the example of the dead, but by the hope of posthumous honour. For, such is our nature, that we are powerfully incited by the desire of fame, even after death. It has been thought wise, therefore, by most nations, and particularly by the ancient republics, to pronounce eulogies on the meritorious dead. If wise in them, it is no less so in us. Indeed, we have more need of this custom than they; because, from the nature of our government, we have fewer artificial excitements to noble actions. We admit of no permanent honours, either personal or hereditary. But the ancient republics had both. We are not without danger of becoming too exclusively the votaries of wealth, often acquired by sordid and ignoble conduct. It behoves us, therefore, to counteract this overwhelming influence, by refusing it any weight in the estimation of character. This can be in no way better done, than by fixing a standard in which wealth shall be no ingredient. And in the formation of this standard, posthumous eulogium will be a powerful engine. Wealth will no longer be thought praiseworthy, when it has ceased to be an object of praise. I am aware of the opinion of a celebrated Roman historian, that this kind of eulogy, although productive of much good, had an evil tendency, in corrupting the truth of history. But this will depend on the use which is made of it. If employed for the purpose of lavishing indiscriminate or unjust encomium, it will be an evil; if judiciously used, a good. By our society this honour has certainly been dispensed, not only with sound judgment, but with a frugal hand. We shall not be accused of corrupting historical integrity, when it is known that but three eulogies have hitherto been pronounced by our order; and that the objects of these three were Franklin, Rittenhouse, and Priestley. Indeed it has been the opinion of many, and particularly of him whose virtues we are about to commemorate, that we have been too sparing of *just applause*. At the last meeting of the society which he attended, he expressed his regret that many of our associates had been suffered to sink into unmerited oblivion.’

On the subject of commencing medical practice, the judge expresses himself with a soundness of opinion that recommends the lesson to every student in the profession.

‘Instead of entering immediately into the practice of medicine, he determined to avail himself of the advantages to be found in the schools of London and Edinburgh, at that time the first in the world. In this he displayed his usual judgment. It has been remarked that, with few exceptions, those who have been great in the learned professions, have abstained from practice at an early age. The cause is obvious. The elements of science lie too deep to be attained without long and patient thought. The mind requires retirement and tranquillity, to exert its powers of reflection to their full extent. But these are incompatible with the bustle, the anxiety, the agitation of active life.’

The value of natural science is ably and eloquently asserted in the following passage, wherein that dignified pursuit is triumphantly upheld, and vindicated from the aspersions of the ignorant.

It has been asserted that the study of natural philosophy tends to infidelity and even to atheism. To plead the cause of philosophy before this society would be worse than waste of time. But as we are honoured with the presence of numerous strangers, it may not be improper to say a few words in answer to this popular objection. It is not foreign to my subject; because, if there be truth in the assertion, instead of recommending our late president, as an example worthy of imitation, we should point him out as a delusive meteor, whose false light might lead the unwary to the pit of destruction. I shall say but little; for were I to permit myself to enlarge on the boundless subject, I should soon exhaust my own strength and your patience. In the sacred scripture, the repository of the revealed will of the Deity, we find it written, that God has not left himself *without witness* among the heathen; that is to say, his visible works bear witness to his existence and his attributes. And it is most true. The most barbarous nations are struck with the evidence, and acknowledge the existence of a power superior to man. But those stupendous works, which, in silent majesty, proclaim their Maker, do not disclose half their testimony to an ignorant observer. Nay, if not understood, there is danger of being misled by them. The untutored savage beholds the splendour of the sun, and perceives that from the warmth of its rays proceeds the growth of the innumerable vegetables which give beauty and comfort to the world. Ignorant of its nature, he considers it as an intelligent being, and worships it as a god. What would be his sensations, could the darkness of his mind be instantaneously illumined by philosophy; how great his surprise at perceiving that this resplendent orb, the object of his adoration, was no more sensible than the brute earth on which he trod? With what astonishment, and gratitude, and awe, would he contemplate that great Being who fixed the sun in his orbit, and clothed it with light? If we pass from the savage to civilized man, the effects of increased knowledge will be of the same nature. The most ignorant among us understand that the sun was created by God. To every one, therefore, it is a mighty witness of the existence and power of its Maker. But thousands and thousands see nothing in the sun, but the source of light and heat. Suppose now, their minds to be endued with a knowledge of all its wonderful power—Suppose them to view it as the centre round which revolve, in rapid and ceaseless motion, the immense bodies which form the planetary system, all bound by its attractive force, to one immutable path through the trackless void.—Suppose them moreover, to be informed, that the countless stars which bespangle the firmament, are probably other suns, enlightening and supporting other systems of inhabited worlds!—Suppose, I say, the mass of mankind to have ideas like these, would not the celestial bodies, to them, bear stronger testimony of the mighty God? And exactly the same argument is applicable to every thing animate and inanimate in this terrestrial globe—from intelligent man to the scarce moving shell-fish—from the towering oak to the twining ivy—from the sparkling diamond to the dusky coal—from the massy rock to the fine sand—from the troubled ocean to the glistening dew-drop—from the loud tornado to the whispering zephyr—whatever floats in air, or swims in water, or rests on its unfathomed bed—whatever flourishes on earth's green surface, or lies hid in her capacious bosom—all the elements of matter, with their unnumbered varieties—all, all bear witness to their almighty Maker, and witness stronger and stronger as they are better and better understood—for every thing is perfect.

every thing miracle. How then can it be that as evidence increases, faith should diminish? The thing is impossible. When the understanding is convinced, it is not in human power to withhold belief. But, it has been said, that the pride of man perverts his understanding—that, intoxicated with his own little discoveries, he forgets his Maker, and with the fool, says in his heart, *there is no God*. In theory this is not true; nor is it in fact. That there are melancholy instances of extraordinary intellect destroyed by intense study, is not to be denied. And candour would ascribe to that cause, the atheism attributed, perhaps unjustly, to a late celebrated French astronomer. But such cases are rare. On the contrary, the instances are without number, where reason has maintained her seat, and the belief in God has been confirmed. To give the highest examples at once, I shall mention Newton in England, and our own Rittenhouse, whose minds the mighty Maker of the universe seems to have touched with celestial fire, in order that they might unfold his works and render their testimony plain and irresistible. Nor is it true that knowledge begets pride. This is proved by the two great men I have named, as remarkable for modesty as for depth of science. It is only the half learned who are insolent. They are proud because they are ignorant.'

From these extracts the tenor of the Eulogium may be collected; the whole deserves the attentive perusal of every friend to knowledge, and must be peculiarly gratifying to the members of the American Philosophical Society, as highly creditable to their discernment in selecting, for their public orator, one who has so amply justified their choice.

Dr. Caldwell's eulogium consists chiefly of professional views, which, as a colleague in the medical faculty of the University of Pennsylvania, he particularly addressed to the students of that department, and to the Medical Society, at whose request it was pronounced. For some particulars relative to the late Professor unnoticed elsewhere, and a brief history of the origin and progress of the medical school in this city, we refer our readers to a notice of the character of the deceased at page 156 of this volume, communicated by one of the Professors.

ART. XI.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, &c.*

LITERATURE AND SCIENCE.

Mr. Sandy, Librarian of the Society of Writers to the Signet, Edinburgh, has compiled a *catalogue raisonné* of the books in the society's library, in a manner calculated to facilitate the reference of the reader, and aid him in the search of information. For one who wishes merely to know whether any particular book is in the library, a common alphabetical catalogue is sufficiently convenient. But, where he is anxious to know all the books which it contains on a particular subject, he must be under the necessity of reading

over a great part of the catalogue, an irksome labour, and which hardly any one can have patience to perform with any degree of accuracy. To obviate this, Mr. Sandy has, in his catalogue, not only arranged, separately, but has formed each branch into a variety of divisions and sub-divisions, which cannot fail to be of the greatest use to those who have particular objects of research in view.

Thus, law is divided into,

1. Treatises on laws in general.
2. Law of nature and nations.
3. Civil Law.

4. Canon law.
5. The constitution and public law of Great Britain.
6. The law of England.
7. The law of Scotland.
8. Mercantile law.
9. Military law.
10. Foreign law.

As a specimen of the subdivisions we give the instance of

POETRY.

- Sec. 1. Greek poets.
 - 1. Originals.
 - 2. Translations.
- Sec. 1. Roman poets.
 - 1. Originals.
 - 2. Translations.
- Sec. 3. French poets.
 - 1. French poets who have written in Latin.
 - 2. French poets who have written in French.
 - 3. Translations of French poets.
- Sec. 4. Italian poets.
- Sec. 5. English poets.
 - 1. Translations of English poets.
- Sec. 4. Scottish poetry.
 - 1. Collections of Scottish poetry.
 - 2. Scottish poets who have written in Latin.
 - 3. Scottish poets who have written in Scottish.
 - 4. Scottish poets who have written in English.
 - 5. Translations of Scottish poets.

It is also highly useful, where a book is voluminous, and its subjects various, to give a concise statement of the contents of its different volumes. This part of the work has accordingly been executed in the present case with great diligence and success.

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USEFUL ARTS.

On the preservation of Meat by means of Charcoal.—The antiseptic power of charcoal has long been known; the domestic use of it to remove or to disguise a slight taint of meat, which has been overkept, is familiar: as is the employment of it to subdue the stench of animal corruption in other circumstances. Trials had been likewise made of it for preserving raw meat for a long time, and preventing instead of merely remedying the decay; but not with complete success, or satisfactory result.

I was therefore desirous of making trials of its efficacy, aided by other means for obviating the usual concurrent causes of putrescence, which appear to be moisture, warmth, and the access of atmospheric air.

With this view I procured some vessels to be made of tin, which may be shortly described as canisters, to which a sliding lid is adapted. Into these vessels fumes of charcoal were introduced to expel the air, and substitute for it carbonic acid. They were then filled with slices of raw meat between layers of dry charcoal powder, and carefully closed, luting the lid, and then covering the whole with bladder. In this state the tin vessels were placed in a wine cellar, where they remained for more than eight months, from the beginning of April to the present month (December).

Four of these vessels were opened on the 6th and the remainder on the 8th December. The meat was found perfectly sound, firm, and sweet; except two pieces which were soft. In all the rest, including three sorts of meat, the fat and the lean were alike good; and, on rubbing or scraping off the charcoal, the raw meat had precisely the appearance which it has when fresh from the shambles. Some of the pieces were dressed and tasted: and were pronounced to be entirely sound. A few were kept, after being taken out of the charcoal, and did not become tainted until after six days.

The charcoal had imbibed a smell not unlike that of dried meat; but not materially offensive. The meat itself was entirely free from that smell.

It is my intention to repeat and vary the experiment, chiefly with a view to ascertain whether any considerable changes of temperature can be rendered consistent with the preservation of raw meat by this method; observing the other precautions. It is plain however, that independently of still greater usefulness which would attend so desirable a result, the mode followed to the extent of the present successful trial cannot but be attended with much practical utility. It is both simple and cheap.

Upon this account, and considering the time requisite to make progress in experiments where results are not obtained until after several months, I have not judged it necessary to defer the

communication of the success which has attended a first trial.

15th December, 1817.

H. T. C.

Patent Malt.—There are few patents that promise to be of such great national importance as one lately obtained by D. Wheeler and Co. for a new and improved method of preparing brown malt.

The essential difference between ale and porter is, that the latter liquor is of a much deeper colour than the former, and has besides a peculiar empyreumatic flavour, not easily defined, though universally known. This colour and this flavour were originally obtained by mixing with the pale malt commonly used for brewing ale a certain proportion of malt dried at a somewhat higher temperature, and, in consequence of being thus slightly scorched, capable of communicating to the water in which it is infused a deep tan-brown colour, and a peculiar flavour.

In the composition of the best genuine porter, two parts of brown malt are required to three parts of pale malt. The price of the former is generally about seven-eighths of the latter; but the proportion of saccharine matter which it contains does not, according to the highest estimate, exceed one-half of that afforded by the pale malt, and probably on an average scarcely amounts to one fifth. Taking, however, the proportion of sugar in brown malt even at about one-half, it follows that the porter brewers are paying for the colour and flavour of their liquor one-fifth of the entire cost of their malt. The price of this latter article has of late years increased so enormously, and the mutual competition of the manufacturers has become so active, as to offer temptations, not easily resisted, either of supplying the flavour and colour of porter by the use of Spanish liquorice, burned sugar, and other similar ingredients, which, however innocent in themselves, are prohibited by the Legislature, or of diminishing the strength of the liquor: thus rendering it more liable to become sour or vapid by keeping, and hence bringing on the necessity of using, alkaline substances to correct the first, and deleterious narcotics, such as *coccus indicus*, to supply the deficiency of alcohol. The result of all this is, that a large quantity of ill-made noxious liquor is forced upon the pub-

lic, that the diminished strength of such as is made of allowed ingredients drives multitudes of the lower classes to the use of gin and opium, and that the scandalous frequency of frauds on this branch of the revenue has entirely abolished all moral feeling on the subject, and reduced it to a mere calculation of expediency.

It appears that the patentees have discovered that, by exposing common malt to a temperature of about 430° Fahr., in close vessels, it acquires a dark chocolate-brown colour, and is rendered so soluble in water, either hot or cold, that, when mixed with pale malt in the proportion of one-eightieth, it communicates to the liquor the perfect colour and flavour of porter.

From this it follows that the brewer, by employing four parts of pale malt and one-twentieth of a part of patent malt, may obtain a stronger liquor than from his usual proportions of three parts of pale and two parts of brown malt. The saving thus occasioned ought in equity to be divided between the patentees, the brewer, and the public. The revenue will be benefited by the increased consumption which will necessarily result from an improvement in the quality of the porter; and both the revenue and public morals will derive advantage from the greatly diminished temptation of fraudulent practices.

Ed. Mag.

The following is particularly worthy of the notice of directors of banking establishments, stock and exchange brokers, and of merchants and others, in general, whose counting houses are so frequently the subjects of depredation, where they contain notes and deposits of value.—

The construction and properties of Bramah's patent lock, in which the confidence of the public has so long reposed, having become a subject of discussion at the meetings of the Royal Institution, Mr. Bramah attended, and exhibited a large model, explanatory of the principles of his late father's lock and his own improvements upon it, to the institution; when every one was satisfied with the almost utter impossibility of opening locks upon this construction, their security depending upon the doctrine of combinations or multiplication of numbers into each other, which

is known to increase in the most rapid proportion. Thus a lock of five sliders admits of 3000 variations, while one of eight, which are commonly made, will have no less than 1,935,360 changes, or, in other words, that number of attempts at making a key, or at picking it may be made, before it can be opened. Such was the case in the lifetime of its late ingenious inventor: but, by the simple improvement of his sons, the present manufacturers, this difficulty may be increased an hundred fold, or in a greater proportion, without at all adding to the complication of the lock.

FINE ARTS.

Poonah or Indian Painting.—This is a method of painting lately introduced from India, by which (with Poonah guides) the ladies of London have been enabled to decorate their dresses, &c. so as to give the appearance of real fruit or flowers. It is also applied to painting landscapes, animals, &c. We are also informed, that it is not necessary the pupil should be previously acquainted with drawing, and that it is done in less than half the usual time. Mr. Middleton has commenced teaching the whole of this elegant art in Edinburgh.

PHILOSOPHICAL.

Miss M'Eroy.—An account has appeared in the newspaper and in a philosophical Journal (Dr. Thomson's), of a blind young woman at Liverpool, possessed of most extraordinary powers in the organs of touch, and a work has been written, by a medical gentleman, expressly on the subject. These powers are stated not to depend upon an improvement of the sense of feeling by habitual exercise, nor even upon a preternatural sensibility of feeling, but upon the actual formation of an optical organ in the skin of the fingers, hands, &c. She is said to *feel* the hour of the day *through* the plate of a watch-glass, and to distinguish colours and objects *reflected* by a mirror. Whoever considers the nature of the eye, and of the sense of vision, must pronounce the case to be no less than miraculous. Dr. Darwin, in his loose speculations on organic life, has traced an irritable fibre becoming sensitive, and by its appetencies acquiring the organs necessary for its existence. This case affords the *only accredited fact* we believe yet on record

in favour of his hypothesis. A young woman is blind, and has an appetency for the sense of vision, and she gains not two eyes as a compensation for those she had lost, but ten, one in each of her fingers, besides occasional ones in the back of her hand and her cheek.

There seems to be an extraordinary sympathy and connexion, we are informed, between these newly produced organs and those she has lost; for we have heard that on a book being presented to her having blue paper on one side and yellow on the other, she felt the part uppermost and said that it was blue, and on being asked what the colour was, she turned round the book so as to bring it *into her natural sphere of vision*, and then said it was yellow. There can be no doubt that she sees, and some persons may suppose not with her fingers.

NAVIGATION.

Mr. Hunter of Edinburgh has invented an instrument which is of great importance to the navigator. From two altitudes of the sun, and the interval of time between the observations, he can determine, within five minutes after the second observation, the latitude of the place, the hour from noon, and the variation of the compass. According to the common form of calculation for double altitudes, the latitude by account is supposed to be known, which in the use of this instrument is not necessary. It has been tried in several examples, and the results always found very near the truth. If a vessel was driven from her course by storms or currents, if the reckoning was altogether lost, and the mariner could not get a meridian observation, with this instrument and a chronometer, he could, in a few minutes after the second observation, ascertain his position on the ocean with accuracy. An invention of so much utility in navigation is worthy of encouragement from those concerned in the commerce of the country.

BOTANY.

A botanical work in folio, printed from stone, consisting of coloured figures of rare plants, will be published in the early part of this year. The figures are taken from the collection of Chinese and Indian drawings in the possession of William Cattle, Esq.

[The following is from the pen of Richard Nisbet, of the Pennsylvania Hospital. It is not unusual to find poets among persons similarly circumstanced; but their effusions mostly betray the wildness of an unsettled brain, and their flights of fancy are in the regions of extravagance.

This piece is of a different character. It manifests a connexion of ideas, and a faithful adherence to the subject, which would not disgrace a poet whose rationality had never been suspended. The justness of the eulogy will be readily admitted by every one who had the happiness of an acquaintance with the much lamented Doctor, whose mildness of manners, and tenderness of disposition, appear to have left an indelible impression, even on the mind of the deranged.]

AN EULOGIC ELEGIAC,

To the departed Doctor Samuel Cooper.

And Carmel's sheet, too short at either end,
May serve a verse to some departed friend.

R. N.

1

Mild were thy manners, as the May's sweet morn,
Which blooms on all, with nature's grace and ease;
Nor knew thy tender breast, *revenge* or *scorn*;
But *thought* and *sorrow*, were thy soul's disease.

2

For gentle May has frequent showery tears,
Though deck'd in all the sweets of vernal power.
And thou, though in the life of vernal years,
Hadst yet the pensive, and the weeping hour.

3

'Tis oft the poet's and the sage's fate,
Some grief or desolation to deplore;
To look indignant on the wretch's state,
Who feels for *self*, nor feels a wish for more.

4

A poet, and a sage, this fate was thine!
But mild benevolence illum'd thy days;
It grac'd thee through the healing art divine,
And rear'd a deathless laurel to thy praise.

5

Ah! virtuous youth! unknown, unsought too long!
(Thy treasures lock'd, of cordial, mental fire)
To thee, though prompt, how poor the friendly song—
Whose Muse reach'd Wisdom, Science, and the Lyre.

6

By *Almus Pater*—fount of worth and love,
May'st thou be blest in some Elysian sphere!
Through no false Carmel, but the true to rove,
While I with tenderness revere thee here.

7

Meanwhile be mine to search where thanks are due;
Review the roll long hid, but once more known.
Still worship virtue—love the kind and true;
And yield aught else (save injuries) their own.

Drawn by Isaac A. Chapman from an Original Sketch taken by an American Officer.

Drawn by Isaac A. Chapman from an Original Sketch taken by an American Officer.



THE ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

MAY, 1818.

ART. I.—*The Emigrant's Guide to the Western and Southwestern States and Territories*: comprising a geographical and statistical description of the States of Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio;—the Territories of Alabama, Missouri, Illinois, and Michigan; and the western parts of Virginia, Pennsylvania, and New York. With a complete list of the road and river routes, west of the Alleghany mountains, and the connecting roads from New York, Philadelphia, and Washington City, to New-Orleans, St. Louis, and Pittsburg. The whole comprising a more comprehensive account of the soil, productions, climate, and present state of improvement of the regions described, than any work hitherto published. Accompanied by a map of the United States, including Louisiana, projected and engraved expressly for this work. By William Darby, Member of the New York Historical Society, and author of a Map and statistical account of the State of Louisiana and the adjacent regions. *New York: Kirk and Mercein.*

THE establishment of new settlements in our extended territories, operates upon the interests of the nation in a manner somewhat analogous to the colonial systems of the European powers. We do not, it is true, restrict importation to our own ports; we throw open the benefits of free trade to all those possessions which by treaty have been ceded, unconditionally as to their rights and privileges, and which, prior to their cession, were in a state of colonial dependence and restriction,—we do not confine intercourse to our own Flag. The principles of general liberty on which our constitution is founded, extend equality to every member of the social compact; yet the vivifying effects of colonization are alike felt. Emigration rapidly fills up the void of every new acquisition, and the character of the emigrating population ensures the speedy development of its resources. The tillage of new lands affords to our vessels substantial objects of export,* while the demand for im-

* Especially in the article of flour. During twelve months between 5 and 600,000 barrels of flour were imported by American vessels into Liverpool alone. We have no returns of the supplies entered from the United States at other ports of Great Britain, or at the ports of France, but they must have been considerable.

plements of husbandry, articles of convenience, and all that the civilizing process takes off, creates employ for the mechanic, and a profitable occupation for the merchant. To render the illustration familiar, we will cite the example of the Mobile country, long under the colonial dominion of Old Spain, which since its annexation to our government has given to numerous vessels of the Atlantic states a new and extensive activity, animating the industry of our denser population in furnishing the necessary articles of supply, while, at the same time, cargoes are derived from it in return, for which the consumption of Europe presents a certain market. In this carrying trade, the maritime interests of the older states are essentially promoted, for, it is obvious that while labour can be so much more advantageously applied in those new districts, it will not be diverted to ship-building, at least to any extent, and whatever be the cause, no fact is more certain than that the industry and enterprize of the eastern and middle states continue to be principally called upon to provide freight for the crops of the southern planters. This holds true, we believe, equally in the Carolinas and Georgia. In the Mobile country, it will be more decidedly felt, as its powers of production are brought into operation; at present, an active and energetic population must be given to it in order to realize those hopes; and to the conveyance of settlers, with their families,—the supply of goods—every description in short of exports, the tonnage employed in the trade will be principally confined.

As cultivation becomes increased by the labours of the residents, and the encouragements arising from demand, shipping will be still more extensively engaged in transporting across the ocean the various products in exchange. In this transportation, a nursery for seamen is formed, and employment circulates its beneficial influence through some of the most useful classes of the community. The ship-builder, the rigger, the ship-chandler, the mast-maker, the sail maker, the boat-builder, the provision merchant, and of consequence the farmer, but more especially the mariner, that precious defender of his country, the pilot—all these are maintained in full activity by additional sources of employment. If we examine the composition of the cargoes, we shall find such an infinity of modes operating to enliven the business of the large towns in which they are fitted out, as to afford the most satisfactory assurances of a solid and durable basis to our prosperity. Literature and science will spread with the extension of the American name, and to the seats of intelligence, refinement, and the Arts, resort will ever be had to supply a liberal curiosity with its richest stores. By an interchange of ideas, of commodities, and of good offices, reciprocal wants will be supplied, and a mutual commerce of minds, as of productions, will cement the union of the whole in the strong bonds of general interest—a joint advantage, one and indivisible. Though distant, yet homogeneous, though so situated as to seem divided by space, yet connected by the same governing maxims of federative policy, the members of this great nation will found their attachment on the known provision for their good in the general good of each and all.

——thus, with time, it grew
 To this deep-laid indissoluble state,
 Where *wealth* and *commerce* lift their golden heads;
 And o'er our labours, *Liberty* and *Law*,
 Impartial, watch; the wonder of a world! *Thomson.*

In this view of beneficial results are to be included all those countries which transmit their produce by the Ohio, the Missouri, the Mississippi, and their tributary streams. Whoever has investigated the general interests of his country, and watched attentively the increase of its commerce, cannot have failed to remark the vast quantity of freight attracted to the port of New-Orleans, and occupied in conveying the annual wealth of those immense and fertile territories communicating by the navigation of the Mississippi. Prosecuting his views farther, and tracing the extraordinary activity of trade and intercourse on that river since the cession of Louisiana to this government, he will see in this new and necessary vent for their accumulations, an unfailing source of employment to the carrier, and of revenue to the treasury, perpetually augmenting. The increased quantity of our exports will of course extend the amount of imports, on which high duties are collected. Our ruling policy at present is not framed for domestic manufacture, but, in the importation of fabrics from abroad, our ships and seamen are employed, and a profit accrues to those through whose hands the business is conducted.

There is another view on which we are disposed to dwell with some complacency, in enumerating the advantages of our new settlements—the tendency they must have in keeping down the average prices of provisions. Our population, already equal in some states to the ordinary demand, is progressive, and without some outlet, this increase would have the natural effect of enhancing the value of the necessaries of life, were the extensive wants of Europe in the article of flour to continue, which will be supplied by us only so long as the *maximum* of our prices are below the *minimum* of the European, and it follows, that without an expansion of our agricultural territory, the farming population predominating over that which is condensed in towns, this branch of our export, with all its attendant consequences, would cease. It is besides essential to the welfare, the comfort, and happiness of the community that subsistence should be easy, and within the reach of industry to command on moderate terms. Whilst there remain such vast quantities of land still unoccupied in the new districts, and in a state of high fertility, always to be procured at a reasonable price, it is not to be expected that, on the Atlantic border, it will attain any extravagant height. We are aware that the distance from market, and the consequent expense of transportation will prove an obstacle to the transmission of agricultural productions in any very great degree, but, in proportion as new roads and improved water communications are opened, this objection diminishes in force, and we know it to be a fact that, at present, Kentucky produce is a very current article in our stores. It is reserved for some future day,

not far distant it is hoped, to witness the realization of those subterranean treasures with which, according to the reports of travellers, some of the new states abound, but, even now, a very considerable freight is derived from the lead mines, and iron and coal will pay for working as inhabitants increase. The land tax, a productive source of revenue, augmenting with every new purchase of individuals, comes in aid of the general purposes of the country, acting as a safe guarantee to public credit, and a sinking fund for the reduction of the national debt. In fact, the combinations of interest and advantage which are interwoven with the connexion subsisting between the various parts of this great whole, are so evident and multiplied, so intimately blended, and promise in their effects so many beneficial consequences to the inhabitants of this highly favoured portion of the globe, that the mind is lost in conjecturing the probable eminence we may attain as a nation, by a judicious use of the united means at our disposal.

Farther territories may soon accrue to us. The philanthropist will approve, when the arrangement is desirable not only to us, but to countries which are to be materially benefited by the transfer. The influence of good example, the opinions of thinking men, and the beams of civilization, spreading over those regions will, it is hoped, disperse any lingering delusions of error, and, diffusing just sentiments, prepare the mind to see more clearly the true interests of its nature. Wherever the march of good principles has held its course over this continent, the advantages attending on its progress have been acknowledged and adopted, and indolence, with its concomitant, jealousy, have given way to more profitable views of thinking and acting. Vice is shunned when it is accounted odious, and public opinion when it is just, becomes respected.

To the research of the philosopher, these new territories present a field of immeasurable extent. To unfold their latent resources will be an employment worthy at once of his powers and of the utility and value of his pursuits. On these he may erect the structure of an honourable fame, while he contributes to advance the prosperity of his country.

Numerous are the political advantages which attend the formation of new settlements. It inspires our countrymen with new activity: it incites the sanguine to useful adventure: it animates the speculative and the ardent to extend their view and realize important schemes: it gives scope to invention, and offers the means of success to ingenuity, beside consolidating our power, acquiring to it an accession of physical force, and increasing that true wealth of states which consists in the produce of the earth. So invigorating to a nation is the parental process of planting and rearing the hopeful scions of its native stock!

The assiduity and ardor with which France applied herself to settling those regions extending between her Canadian possessions and the valley of the Mississippi, attest the importance attached to these new springs for traffic, these increasing demands for barter, insinuating themselves into the remotest hunting grounds of the

Indian. The distance of her dominions on this continent from the mother country, and the expense, as well as difficulty, of affording them effectual support against hostile aggressions from her formidable rival, led subsequently to their dismemberment, but, while the same motives exist to encourage us to the pursuit of channels which put into effective circulation our active industry, we, by our contiguity and compactness of position, have nothing to apprehend from external attack. Each state in reserve forms an impenetrable depth of country, and each frontier state is a bulwark to its supporters.

—————alterius sic

Altera poscit opem res, et conjurat amice.

The immense value of our new possessions appears, not alone from a review of their productions, their great and improvable resources, and their employment for our shipping; the sentiments of other European nations respecting their importance, and above all, the conduct of France, in the various efforts made to retain possession of her American dominions, most clearly evince how highly she estimated their importance. Though deprived of her Canadian territories, yet the anxious wish of possessing a portion of the American continent may be traced in the following extract from a curious memoir, written during the consulship of Buonaparte in 1800, by a very sagacious and profound statesman, M. Talleyrand, which, while it exhibits the beauty and fertility of the country in question, displays the strongest desire for the attainment of the object, at the same time that it shows an extreme anxiety for the removal of every obstacle to its possession; nor does it less clearly lead to an inference as to the true value of the acquisition to us.

‘Our nation,’ says M. Talleyrand, referring to Louisiana, ‘had the vain honour of conferring a name* on a portion of the globe not exceeded by any other portion of it, in all the advantages of the climate and soil. It is an immense valley, watered by a deep and beneficent river. This river first acquires importance in the latitude of 45 north. It flows in a devious course about two thousand miles, and enters the bay of Mexico, by many mouths, in latitude 29. In these latitudes is comprised the temperate zone, which has been deemed most favourable to the perfection of the animal and vegetable nature. This advantage is not marred by the chilling and sterilizing influence of lofty mountains, the pestilential fumes of intractable bogs, or the dreary uniformity of sandy plains. Throughout the whole extent, there is not, probably, a snow-capt hill, a moving sand, or a volcanic eminence.

‘This valley is of different breadths. The ridge which bounds it on the east, is in some places nearly a thousand miles from the great middle stream. From this ridge, secondary rivers, of great extent and magnificence, flow towards the centre, and the intermediate regions are an uncultivated paradise. On the west, the valley is of similar dimensions, the streams are equally large and useful, and the condition of the surface equally delightful.

* So called after Louis XIV king of France. Er.

‘We must first observe, that, in gaining possession of this territory, we shall not enter on a desert, where the forest must be removed before a shelter can be built; whither we must carry the corn and clothes necessary to present subsistence; and the seed, the tools, and the cattle, which are requisite to raise a future provision.

‘There cannot, in the first place, be imagined a district more favourable to settlement. In addition to a genial climate and soil, there are the utmost facilities of communication and commerce. The whole district is the sloping side of a valley, through which run deep and navigable rivers, which begin their course in the remotest borders, and which all terminate in the central stream. This stream, one of the longest and widest in the world, is remarkably distinguished by its depth. It flows into a gulf which contains a great number of populous islands. Among these islands are numerous passages into the ocean that washes the shores of Europe. Thus, not only every part of the district is easily accessible by means of rivers, but the same channels are ready to convey the products of every quarter to the markets most contiguous and remote.

‘The Nile flows in a torrid climate through a long and narrow valley. The fertility which its annual inundations produce, extends only two or three leagues on either side of it. The benefits of this fertility are marred by the neighbourhood of scorching sands, over which the gales carry intolerable heat and incurable pestilence, and which harbour a race of savages, whose trade is war and pillage. Does this river bestow riches worthy of the greatest efforts of the nation to gain them, and shall the greater Nile of the western hemisphere be neglected? A Nile whose inundations diffuse the fertility of Egypt twenty leagues from its shores, which occupies a valley wider than from the Duna to the Rhine, which flows among the most beautiful dales, and under the benignest seasons, and which is skirted by a civilized and kindred nation on one side,* and on the other by extensive regions, over which the tide of growing population may spread itself without hindrance or danger.

‘The choicest luxuries of Europe are coffee, sugar, and tobacco. The most useful materials of clothing are cotton and silk. All these are either natives of the Mississippi valley, or remarkably congenial to it. The cultivation of these, and the carriage to market, are as obvious and easy as the most ardent politician can desire. The whole extent of the river will be our own, and in the lower and most fertile portion of its course, the banks on both sides will be our indisputable property.

‘The friend of the health, longevity, and useful pleasure of the human species, and of the opulence of France, could not devise a better scheme than one which should enable every inhabitant of Europe to consume half a pound of sugar a day, and assign to Frenchmen the growth, the carriage, and the distribution of so much.† Now this scheme is no other than the possession of the American Nile.

‘I shall pass over, without mentioning, many other articles, such as tobacco, indigo, and the like, for which France and the rest of Europe will supply an unlimited consumption, and hasten to articles which are of more importance, and these are cotton and provisions.

* Spanish America.

† 225,000,000 cwt. the produce of an area, not exceeding that of Guienne, Normandy, and Brittany, are not the twentieth part of the valley of the Mississippi.—TRANSLATOR.

‘The most beautiful production of nature is cotton. It was more than the caprice of fashion that went to the extremities of the east in search of this material, for there is none capable of a greater number of uses, of so many forms, and such various colours. Its texture may constitute the lightest and most beautiful ornaments, or the best defence against the intemperature of the air.

‘The nations of the east have used it immemorially, and from them has it gradually been brought to Europe. The use of it seems to have been limited by nothing but the power of procuring it. Like sugar, the use of it has increased since it has been naturalized to the soil of America. The consumption has, in like manner, been eager to outrun the supply. The American states have, of late, *become sensible of the value of the commerce in cotton*, and their success supplies us with a new example, and a powerful inducement to appropriate, in part, the territory of Mississippi to the same culture.

‘But now comes the fearful and scrupulous head to dash these charming prospects. Obstacles to these great achievements multiply in his timorous fancy. He expatiates on the length of the way; the insalubrity of uncultivated lands; of a climate to which the constitution and habits of the colonists are uncongenial; of a soil, part of which, and that accessible and most valuable, lies under a torrid sun, and is annually inundated.

‘Now all these difficulties are imaginary. They are real in relation to a *first* settlement. They ought to be taken into a strict account, if our projects extended to New Holland or to California. In all real cases, these difficulties have been great by reason of the avarice, injustice and folly of the colonizing nation; and the wisest plans could not totally exclude, though they would greatly lessen, and easily surmount them. But Louisiana is not a *new* settlement. It is one of the oldest in North America. All the labours of discovering and of setting the first foot on a desert shore, were suffered and accomplished long ago.

‘The Spaniards must be thoroughly aware that their power in Mexico and Peru exists by the weakness and division of their vassals, and by the remoteness and competition of their European enemies. Unwise and imbecile as that nation has generally appeared in latter times, the admission of the French to a post, *from whence their dominions may be so easily annoyed at present, and from which their future expulsion is inevitable*, is a folly too egregious even for them to commit, and of which the most infatuated of their counsels has not hitherto afforded an example.

‘If Spain should refuse the cession, there is an end to our golden views. Our empire in the new world is strangled in its cradle; or at least, the prosecution of our scheme must wait for a more propitious season.

‘The trade which enriches England lies chiefly in the products of foreign climates. But her Indian territories produce nothing which the Mississippi could not as easily produce. The Ganges fertilizes a valley less extensive. Its *Deltas*, as well as those of the Nile, are in the same latitudes, and these rivers generate the same exuberant soil, only in smaller space and in less quantities than the great western Nile: but the Mississippi comprehends in its bosom, the regions of the temperate zone as well as the tropical climates and products. The arctic circle in America will be equally accessible to us. Our ancient possessions in Canada will in due season return to us of their own accord.

‘Whatever gives colonies to France, supplies her with ships and

sailors, manufactures and husbandmen. The growth of colonies supplies her with zealous *citizens*, and the increase of real wealth and effective numbers is the consequence.

‘It is contrary to all probability that either Spain or England will be tractable on this occasion; but, if the danger, by being distant, is invisible to them; or if the present evils, arising to England from the continuance of the war, or to Spain from the resentment of the French government, should outweigh, in their apprehensions, all future evils, and prevail on one to grant, and on the other to connive at the grant, by what arguments, by what promises, by what threats, by what hostile efforts, shall we extort the consent of the American states? How shall we prevail on them to alienate *the most valuable portion of their territory*; to admit into their vitals a formidable and active people, whose interests are incompatible, in every point, with their own; whose enterprises will inevitably interfere and jar with theirs, whose neighbourhood will cramp all their movements; circumscribe their future progress to narrow and ignominious bounds; and make incessant inroads on their harmony and independence. The master of the Mississippi will be placed so as to control, in the most effectual manner, these internal interests. It is acknowledged that he holds in his hands the *bread* of all the settlements westward of the mountains. He may dispense or withhold at his pleasure. See we not the mighty influence that this power will give us over the councils of these states?’

The sources from which M. Talleyrand derived his information it is presumed were original, as he travelled in this country about the period of the French Revolution. His observations, though comparatively of little value since facts respecting the valley of the Mississippi have become better understood, yet tend to establish the importance of the acquisition no less in a political than in an agricultural point of view.

Mr. Darby is advantageously known to the public as the author of a more particular account of that country than had previously appeared. His situation as one of the surveyors who for several years assisted in adjusting the ancient boundaries of land in Louisiana, was particularly favourable to his gaining correct information respecting those parts which he visited. Since the publication of his former work on Louisiana he has collected a variety of materials on the topics expressed in the title-page, which the avidity of the public for all that treats of the new countries has called into circulation. While some, in perusing these works, are actuated solely by a thirst for knowledge, others seek to guide their emigrating steps by the light which they afford, and a still greater number perhaps, desire to estimate the prospects of relatives or friends who either are their precursors, or who carry with them the hopes and wishes of those they leave behind. To all such these treatises are precious. Of the map prefixed to the present volume we shall be better qualified to judge after the publication of a map of Louisiana by Dr. John H. Robinson, of Natchez, recently announced. This gentleman we believe is the same who accompanied Lieutenant Pike in his exploratory travels, and from his long residence in that part of the country is no doubt particularly qualified to do

justice to his undertaking. As a map of the United States, Mr. Darby's bears no comparison with Melish's, which is unquestionably the best we have. As professedly illustrating the relative position of Louisiana to the adjacent states, it is not more happy, and we have besides, Mr. Darby's former map of Louisiana on a scale of ten miles to an inch, far more minute and satisfactory. After all, the topography of Louisiana is but imperfectly known, and time is necessary to its more perfect development. The chart of Mobile Bay, wherein the rivers that empty into it are laid down, with the position of the forts and settlements in that quarter, is new, and may be regarded as an accession to our stock of knowledge on the subject, slender as it is at present. Of the Mobile country indeed, and the Alabama territory, on which information generally is remarkably deficient, Mr. Darby gives the best account extant in print. A part of this we quote.

Of the towns that have been begun in the valley of the Mobile, the most important are, Mobile, Blakely, Fort St. Stephens, Fort Claiborne, and Alabama.

'*Mobile* stands upon the west side of the bay of that name, in $30^{\circ} 40'$ N. lat. This town, though amongst the first established in Louisiana by the French, is yet of but little consequence. It is built upon a high bank of the bay; the site is dry and commanding, but the approach of the harbour, for vessels drawing more than eight feet water, is difficult and circuitous. The annexed plan of the bay will exhibit its position more clearly than could be done by any verbal description. Vessels can be brought very near the shore, and the harbour is completely sheltered from the storms, or sudden attack of an enemy by water.

'The country in its rear is unsettled pine woods. There are no extensive settlements nearer than Washington or Baldwin counties, above the 31° N. lat.

'Many very serious impediments oppose themselves to the advance of Mobile, but the most effectual is the rise of a rival town in a more convenient situation for commercial transactions.

'*Blakely* stands upon the east side of Mobile bay, in $30^{\circ} 43'$ N. lat. This town has been established only a little more than a year. It has some pre-eminent advantages over Mobile; one of which is, that the same wind that enables a vessel to enter Mobile bay, will carry her to the wharfs of Blakely, which is not the case respecting Mobile; another is, an open road to the rapidly improving country on the Alabama river.

'Blakely, it is most likely, will become the mart of Mobile river; there is a vigorous rivalry between the two towns at present, but the obvious superiority of the position of Blakely will probably be decisive in its favour.

'*Fort St. Stephens* is established on the west bank of the Tombigbee, at N. lat. $31^{\circ} 33'$. This town stands at the head of schooner navigation, and is in a state of rapid improvement. The amount of the commercial business, already done at this town, exceeds \$500,000 annually. In its vicinity is the most wealthy and best populated country on the waters of the Mobile. Baldwin, Washington, and Clarke counties, have all received great accessions of population within three years past.

'Property continually rises in value, notwithstanding the interminable quantity of public land opened for settlement. The advantage of oc-

cupying the point between boat and ship navigation confers great importance on this place. Whatever towns may arise, either above or below, yet this place must maintain its relative rank.

‘It is, by act of congress, the seat of government for Alabama territory, until otherwise directed by the legislature thereof. It has been found, in a great number of instances in the United States, that nothing but commercial facility can augment, to any considerable extent, the wealth or inhabitants of towns; and that their being selected for the seats of legislatures, or courts of justice, gives but trivial comparative advantage. It is, therefore, of very little consequence to the people of St. Stephens, whether or not it remains the seat of government.

‘*Fort Claiborne*, on Alabama river, occupies the same relative position on that stream, that Fort St. Stephens does on Tombigbee. The former town has entirely risen since the end of the last war between the United States and Great Britain. Like all other places in the valley of Mobile, it is in a state of prosperous advance. The town of Fort Claiborne is also at the head of schooner navigation; of course the chances of its permanency rest upon the same principles of calculation which we have applied to Fort St. Stephens.

‘It would be difficult to state the number of houses or people in any of these new towns. In reality, the numbers change so rapidly, that no estimate can remain one year correct. It would be useless to attempt any precise enumeration of the component parts of a mass so incessantly accumulating.

‘The country in the vicinity of the junction of the Tombigbee and Alabama is in some respects most admirably situated to become a pleasant and profitable residence. It will probably, at no very distant time, be the centre of a great thoroughfare between New Orleans and the southern states upon the Atlantic. Should the vine and olive be successfully cultivated, and there is but little reason to doubt a prosperous issue to the attempt to introduce those useful plants, then will the valley of the Mobile become the American Italy: there will the declining constitutions, sinking under the severity of northern winters, find warmth, health, and mental enjoyment.’

To these descriptions are added a botanical list of valuable forest trees growing in the parts described, giving a preference to those more immediately applicable to purposes of utility, together with such known vegetables as contribute to the subsistence of man. Mr. Darby is sanguine as to the possibility of rearing to perfection the vine, the olive, and the silk-worm, in favourable situations of the south; and, recounting their natural history, with the particulars of their growth in countries where they flourish, he deduces a conclusion favourable to their culture here.

We do not remember to have seen any proposal for cutting a canal, or making an iron rail-way or train-road, to wind round the sides of the mountains, from Pittsburgh to some central point, with subsequent branches to the great cities. It has always occurred to us as highly desirable. In the course of twelve months in 1817, no less than twelve thousand wagons passed the Alleghany mountains from Philadelphia and Baltimore, with from four to six horses, carrying from 35 to 40 cwt. The cost of carriage is about 7 dollars per cwt., in some cases as high as 10, from Philadelphia to

Pittsburg. The aggregate sum paid for conveyance of goods on this road exceeds 1,500,000 dollars annually. Add to these, the numerous stages loaded to the utmost, and the innumerable travellers on horseback, and on foot, and light-wagons, many of whom would prefer a water conveyance, or an artificial road that should enable one horse to drag the load of five under other circumstances: taking which into view, it is not surely too much to expect that, however expensive the undertaking, it would abundantly remunerate the proprietors.

Since the beginning of this century, Pittsburgh has risen, from an inconsiderable village, to the rank of a city, now containing from 12 to 15,000 inhabitants, and concentrating an immense commercial and manufacturing capital. The following description of it will gratify such as rejoice at the rapid strides making in the condition of our internal customers.

‘*Pittsburg* is in every respect the principal town, not only of the Ohio valley, but, New-Orleans excepted, of the whole waters of the Mississippi. It was created a city by the legislature of Pennsylvania, at the session of 1815-16.

‘Travellers are almost always disappointed on entering this city; there is but one point of approach that affords a good view of the place; that is the apex of the coal hill, in the road from Washington in Pennsylvania. The city is built upon the peninsula between the Aleghany and Monongahela rivers; the ground plan is nearly in form of a triangle. The bottom upon which the town of Pittsburg was originally laid out, is now nearly filled with houses; a suburb has been laid out upon the Aleghany called the northern liberties, and another upon the Monongahela. The former, from the width of the bottom from the river to the hill, and from the circumstance of the turnpike road from the eastward entering through it, is extending rapidly; the suburb upon the Monongahela cannot increase considerably for want of room between Ayres hill and the river.

‘There are four other villages, however, that are virtually suburbs of Pittsburg; Birmingham, upon the left bank of Monongahela, opposite Ayres hill; Aleghany, upon a fine second bottom of that stream, opposite Pittsburg; Lawrenceville, two miles above Pittsburg, upon the same side of the Aleghany; and a street running along the left bank of Monongahela, opposite Pittsburg. When this city and vicinity was surveyed by the author of this treatise, in October, 1815, there were in Pittsburg 960 dwelling houses, and in the suburbs, villages, and immediate outskirts, about 300 more, making in all 1260, and including inhabitants, workmen in the manufactories, and labourers, upwards of 12,000 inhabitants.

‘This city is literally a work-shop, and a warehouse for the immense country below, upon the Ohio and other rivers. On a cursory survey, when viewing the iron foundries, glass-houses, and other creative machinery, it is not easy to imagine where the products can be disposed of; but a review of the emigration over the mountains will soon remove this wonder. It will be useless to load the pages of this treatise with the names of the various owners of machinery, but a recapitulation of the objects of human wants must be interesting to every emigrant who intends to visit this real phenomenon.

‘A large steam grist mill, capable of grinding into flour sixty thousand bushels of wheat annually. Three breweries, in which are made an immense quantity of beer, porter, and ale. One nail factory, including the manufacture of many other objects, in which are manufactured nearly 80,000 dollars worth of ironmongery annually. Two extensive air foundries, in which are cast excellent cannon and cannon balls, smiths’ anvils, sad irons, stoves, pots and kettles of all kinds, sugar boilers and cylinders cast, and the latter turned.

‘Of ironmongery, are now made, sheet iron, nails and nail rods, shovels, tongs, axes, mattocks, hoes, adzes, drawing knives, cutting knives, vices, scale beams, plain bits, chisels, spades, and, in fine, every object necessary in a country of this kind.

‘Locks, hinges, hasps, screws, but-hinges, bridle bits, buckles, and stirrup and saddle irons, are all manufactured.

‘Wagons, carts, and drays, with every single substance that can enter their composition, and every tool, (perhaps saws excepted) necessary to their construction, are made in this city.

‘In November, 1815, there were neither coach nor harness maker in the city; if that is still the case, an excellent opportunity is offered to any person acquainted with either or both those occupations.*

‘Perhaps of all the wonders of Pittsburg, the greatest is the glass factories. About twenty years have elapsed since the first glass-house was erected in that town, and at this moment every kind of glass, from a porter bottle or window pane, to the most elegant cut crystal glass, are now manufactured. There are four large glass-houses, in which are now manufactured, at least, to the amount of 200,000 dollars annually.

‘Pottery is carried on in Birmingham, where excellent stone and black ware are made; common red ware is also manufactured to great amount.

‘To the above may be added, white lead, red lead, buttons, wheel irons, knitting needles, silver plating, stocking weaving, suspenders, boots, shoes, hats, saddles, bridles, bells, stills, copper kettles, brushes of every kind, curry combs, trunks, brass and iron candlesticks, and in fact an infinity of objects of daily demand, brought a few years past from Europe.

‘Cotton and woollen cloth is also made extensively, consisting of blankets, vest patterns, hosiery, coarse and fine cottonade, and broadcloth.

‘Except the gratifying reflection arising from the review of so much plastic industry, Pittsburg is by no means a pleasant city to a stranger. The constant volumes of smoke preserve the atmosphere in a continued cloud of coal dust. In October, 1815, by a reduced calculation, at least 2000 bushels of that fuel was consumed daily, on a space of about two and a quarter square miles. To this is added a scene of activity, that reminds the spectator that he is within a commercial port, though 300 miles from the sea.

‘Several good inns, and many good taverns, are scattered over the city; but often, from the influx of strangers, ready accommodation is found difficult to procure. Provisions of every kind abound; two markets are held weekly.

‘The circumstance which has contributed most, after its relative position, to secure the prosperity of Pittsburg, is the enormous mass of

* A gentleman from Pittsburg informs us there is now a saddle and harness-maker there who employs forty-five journeymen. *Ed.*

mineral coal that exists in its vicinity. The coal, like all other fossil bodies in the Ohio valley, rests in horizontal strata, about three and a half feet thick, of very pure bituminous coal. The strata are 340 feet above low water level, or about 290 above the level of Pittsburg; consequently a falling body from the moment of issuing from the mouth of the mine, until placed in the cellar of the consumer. The medium price, six and a quarter cents per bushel, or two dollars and twenty-five cents per chaldron.

‘Coal abounds in every hill which rises more than four hundred feet above low water mark: where less than eighty or one hundred feet of incumbent earth rests upon the coal bed, the quality of the mineral is found greatly depreciated. It has been already noticed, that the coal strata are perfectly level with each other. In the neighbourhood of Pittsburg they are divided into three separate bodies; the first, and perhaps most extensive, is west of the Monongahela, the second, on the peninsula upon which the city stands, and thirdly, northwest of the Alleghany river. The supply of the city is taken principally from the beds of the second repository, though an immense quantity is also brought from the first.

‘Two bridges are, by an act of the state legislature, to be built over the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, in places best calculated to facilitate intercourse with the adjacent country, and to unite together the scattered and detached fragments of the same commercial community.

The advice to emigrants is sensible, and merits the attention of that class of persons. That they are cautioned, and taught the value of deliberation in their proceedings is well, for to none are the admonitions of experience better recommended than to the youthful, the ardent, and speculative adventurer. By expecting too much, that disappointment ensues, which a careful appreciation at first would have obviated. Great are the difficulties which present themselves to the new settler, and slow is his reward. The imagination creates its dreams of happiness, while truth oftentimes comes too late. We do not wish to be understood as discouraging the laudable pursuit of superior advantages on a distant soil. It is to those who, setting out with exaggerated notions, are likely to return dissatisfied, that the language of counsel is addressed. Ere they adopt the most important step of their lives, let them read, and consider the obstructions that present themselves even in the high road to success.

In our former remarks on emigration, page 55, vol. 10. we dwelt upon the benefits to be expected from a plan for the union of interests among emigrants, both as conducive to mutual encouragement and aid, with their usual consequence, success, and as forming a connecting point for all such whose labours might be serviceable, and otherwise unemployed. Our picture, we are pleased to find, was not overwrought, for Mr. Birkbeck, in the state of Indiana, bids fair to bring about the realization of our most flattering hopes. The ‘Notes on a Journey to the Illinois Territory’ by this author,* give the countenance of experience to bodies having an unity of object and of action; an opinion amply confirmed by Mr. Bradbury

* This work has recently been republished in England, from the Philadelphia Edition, and has excited considerable attention there.

in his travels into the western country (see Review, pp. 19, 20, of the present volume). Since our former notice of these publications, we have heard of a respectable society abroad, consisting of several hundred persons, many of them of large property, having dispatched a very intelligent gentleman to this country for the purpose of selecting a favourable position for an extensive agricultural and manufacturing establishment, with a capital of nearly a million of dollars. It is well that they have taken the resolution of embracing both objects in their plan, for manufacture is the hand-maid of agriculture, and gives to its productions an enhanced value, necessary indeed when in the raw state they do not defray expense of transportation. Such is the diversity of our soil and climate, throughout the latitudes comprehended in a various and wide-spread territory, that there is nothing in point of material which our country in some part or other does not supply. Labour may be costly, but are there not labour-saving machines, that require the attendance chiefly of youths, the aid of women, and yet perform the work of horses!

It was manufacture that enriched the Harmonist Society; their resolution overcame difficulty, and they found a market for their fabrics in all the country round. Their success has afforded to all a practical lesson, in that sure reward which has crowned the joint endeavours of union and perseverance.

Before dismissing the present treatise, we must be allowed to remark upon the unusually long list of the *errata*, evincing a degree of inattention that can only imply a want of due respect to the public, from the negligence with which they are treated. On behalf of the reading community it is our duty to express disappointment at the occurrence, wheresoever we meet with it. In the present case, there are numerous typographical errors overlooked, exclusive of the inaccuracies which are noticed, constituting an aggravation of the offence. An author is chargeable with the neglect of his proof-sheets.

Upon a review of the features of society in our new settlements, it affords us much satisfaction to observe, that the important business of education is assigned a due rank in public consideration. Lands are set apart for the support of academies and schools, and legislation has wisely provided for the instruction of the needy equally with the rich.* Education, as it is the attribute of civiliz-

* Extract from the proceedings of Congress in their present session.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, 4 April.

State of Illinois.

The house resolved itself into a committee of the whole, Mr. H. Nelson in the chair, on the bill to enable the people of Illinois territory to form a constitution and state government, and for the admission of such state into the union on a footing with the original states.

Mr. Pope moved to insert a clause for the appropriation of the state's proportion of the proceeds of the sales of the public lands, with the provision following. viz. 'two-fifths to be disbursed under the direction of Congress in making roads leading to the state; the residue to be appropriated by the Legislature of the

ed man, gives strength to his powers, and increases the sphere of his usefulness and his enjoyments. It directs industry to its proper channels. The right cultivation of the soil, the apportioning of lands, the construction of roads, canals, bridges,—all are the offsprings of wisdom, and of industry directed by ability. It is pleasing to see new towns flourishing in the vigor of youth and freshness, where, a few years since, there was nought but howling wilderness. Our countrymen, whithersoever they roam, are the pioneers of knowledge, civilization, and the useful arts. The commodious mansion, the house sacred to worship, the busy factory, now rear their heads where lately all was one unprofitable waste. They are the proper works of enlightened man, and betoken the abode of qualities worthy to enjoy the dominion they have acquired.

‘These are thy blessings, INDUSTRY! rough power!
 Whom labours still attends, and sweat, and pain:
 Yet the kind source of every gentle art,
 And all the soft civility of life:
 Raiser of human kind! by Nature cast,
 Naked, and helpless, out amid the woods
 And wilds, to rude inclement elements;
 With various seeds of art deep in the mind
 Implanted, and profusely pour’d around
 Materials infinite; but idle all.
 Still unexerted, in th’ unconscious breast,
 Slept the lethargic powers; corruption still,
 Voracious, swallowed what the liberal hand
 Of bounty scatter’d o’er the savage year:
 And still the sad barbarian, roving, mix’d
 With beasts of prey; or for his acorn-meal
 Fought the fierce tusky boar; a shivering wretch!
 Aghast, and comfortless, when the bleak north,
 With Winter charg’d, let the mix’d tempest fly,
 Hail, rain, and snow, and bitter-breathing frost:
 Then to the shelter of the hut he fled;
 And the wild season, sordid, pin’d away.
 For home he had not: home is the resort
 Of love, of joy, of peace and plenty, where,
 Supporting and supported, polish’d friends,
 And dear relations mingle into bliss.
 But this the rugged wand’rer never felt,

state for the encouragement of learning, of which one-part shall be exclusively bestowed on a College or University.’

Mr. P. said, that the fund proposed to be applied to the encouragement of learning, had in some instances been devoted to roads; but its application had, it was believed, not been productive of all the good anticipated; on the contrary, it had been exhausted on local and partial objects, by its distribution among the counties according to their respective representation in the legislature. The importance of education in a republic, he said, was universally acknowledged; and that no immediate aid could be derived in new countries from waste lands was no less obvious—and that no active fund would be provided in a new state, the history of the western states too clearly proved. In addition to this, Mr. P. said, that nature had left little to be done in the proposed state of Illinois, in order to have the finest roads in the world. Besides, roads would be made by the inhabitants as they became necessary, because the benefits are immediate; but not so with endowments to public seminaries. The effects of these institutions were too remote.

The motion was agreed to without a division.

Even desolate in crowds; and thus his days
 Roll'd heavy, dark, and unenjoy'd, along;
 A waste of time! till INDUSTRY approach'd,
 And rous'd him from his miserable sloth;
 His faculties unfolded; pointed out,
 Where lavish Nature the directing hand
 Of Art demanded; shew'd him how to raise
 His feeble force by the mechanic powers,
 To dig the mineral from the vaulted earth,
 On what to turn the piercing rage of fire,
 On what the torrent, and the gather'd blast;
 Gave the tall ancient forest to his axe;
 Taught him to chip the wood, and hew the stone,
 Till by degrees the finish'd fabric rose;
 Tore from his limbs the blood polluted fur,
 And wrapt them in the woolly vestment warm,
 Or bright in glossy silk, and flowing lawn;
 With wholesome viands fill'd his table, pour'd
 The generous glass around, inspir'd to wake
 The life-refining soul of decent wit:
 Nor stopp'd at barren bare necessity;
 But still advancing bolder, led him on
 To pomp, to pleasure, elegance, and grace;
 And, breathing high ambition thro' his soul,
 Set science, wisdom, glory, in his view,
 And bade him be the *Lord* of all below.

Then gathering men their natural powers combin'd,
 And form'd a *Public*; to the general good
 Submitting, aiming, and conducting all.
 For this the *Patriot-Council* met, the full,
 The free, and fairly represented *Whole*;
 For this they plann'd the holy guardian laws,
 Distinguish'd orders, animated arts,
 And with joint force *Oppression* chaining, set
Imperial Justice at the helm; yet still
 To them accountable: nor slavish dream'd
 That toiling millions must resign their weal,
 And all the honey of their search, to such
 As for themselves alone themselves have rais'd.

Hence every storm of cultivated life
 In order set, protected, and inspir'd,
 Into perfection wrought. Uniting all,
 Society grew numerous, high, polite,
 And happy. Nurse of art! the city rear'd
 In beauteous pride her tower-encircled head;
 And, stretching street on street, its thousands drew.

Then COMMERCE brought into the public walk
 The busy merchant, the big warehouse built;
 Rais'd the strong crane; choak'd up the loaded street
 With foreign plenty; on either hand whilst,
 Like a long wintry forest, groves of masts
 Shot up their spires; the bellying sheet between
 Possess'd the breezy void; the floating hulk
 Steer'd sluggish on; the splendid barge along
 Row'd, regular, to harmony; around,
 The boat, light-skimming, stretch'd its oary wings;
 While deep the various voice of fervent toil
 From bank to bank increas'd ———

All is the gift of INDUSTRY; whate'er
 Exalts, embellishes, and renders life
 Delightful. ———

ART. II.—*An address, delivered at the meeting of the Agricultural Society of Jefferson County, December 29, 1817.* By J. Le Ray de Chaumont, President of the Society. New York: pp. 20. 8vo. 1818.

WE have read with much satisfaction this well written discourse, and, anxious as we are to record every circumstance which marks the growing prosperity of our country, we shall extract from it such passages as seem most calculated to interest our readers.

It is indeed among the most gratifying evidences of the rapid advancement of the United States, that Jefferson county—the immediate neighbourhood of Sackett's harbour,—which within our recollection, was a dreary wilderness, is at this day, the head-quarters of a division of our army, a naval station, and what is of more importance, is cultivated by an industrious and enlightened population. Of this latter remark the little work before us furnishes satisfactory evidence. They have early perceived that after clearing the land, the next step is, to assist its productive powers by judicious modes of cultivation, by adapting the culture to the nature of the soil and the climate, by economising human labour, by a well regulated rotation of crops, by all the arts of European husbandry, which we are sorry to say, are too little practised in this country. The example of this society is well worthy of imitation in more populous districts.

The address is written without affectation, but with an air of plainness and good sense becoming the subject. The remarks on the productions best calculated for the middle states are doubly interesting, as being the result of the writer's experience in France, and even to general readers, the picture which is drawn of the country on the St. Lawrence will be found well worthy of examination.

After an appropriate exordium, Mr. Le Ray proceeds:—

'The first nations of Europe, and at the head of them France and England, are indebted for the greatest share of their wealth and grandeur to their high improvements in agriculture. The great Sully, to prove the immense importance of agriculture, in speaking of tillage and pasturage, called them the *'two breasts of the state.'* Several eminent characters, and one of the distinguished historians of England, ascribes the great prosperity of English agriculture to the establishment of agricultural societies.

'We find, too, in these infant states, specimens of the invaluable consequences which such institutions as ours can procure to the country. I allude more particularly to the Berkshire Agricultural Society, and that of Otsego county as being nearer to us. We can see in what a short period they have introduced a style of agricultural improvement highly exemplary, and which has already produced the most beneficial results. The first to be sure has evinced much greater success; but if we attend to the difference in the age of their first settlement, and of the establishment of their agricultural societies, we shall find the latter not far behind. The land which comprises the flourishing and thicksettled county of Otsego was a complete wilderness in 1785, when I penetrated its woods, compass in hand, and laid the foundation of the first saw-mill and

grist-mill which was erected in it. It has now the honour to take the lead in establishing in this great state the first agricultural society; having public exhibitions and distributing premiums. The formation of it is recent, and their first annual exhibition was in October last. I mention this example more particularly as being, by a greater analogy with us, more easy to follow, and to excite a noble and profitable emulation.'

He then states the advantages to be derived from agricultural societies—and as an encouragement to farmers gives the following account of the country in which the labours of the society promise to be so useful.

'There is not a portion of the earth, nor of its inhabitants, better calculated for the promotion of agricultural pursuits, than the United States at large. I will hereafter speak more particularly of our part of these states.

'It is sufficient to cast our eyes on the map of the United States, to see that by the variety of its climate and of its situation, it must offer every resource to agricultural pursuits. But what cannot be met with in any other country is, the disposition of the inhabitants to receive and promulgate all new discoveries and improvements. They are generally free from those prejudices which among the most part of the country people in the old nations of Europe oppose, a dreadful and almost insuperable barrier to the progress of agriculture. By natural dispositions, and by intermixing with the new comers from different parts of the world, the American people easily barter for their valuable changes and improvements, either in mechanic arts or agriculture, the stationary habits of their predecessors. No people in the world have a genius superior to that which the people of America happily possess for inventive talents and mechanical arts. Then if we consider that the high price of labour adds a great stimulus to inventions, we shall find sufficient ground to expect the more extensive advantages of that combination peculiar to the United States.

'Now let us come nearer our homes, and find within our limits the greatest cause of encouragement.

'Our climate is acknowledged by every one to be uncommonly healthy. Those too, who have been the longest in these parts, are persuaded by experience that it is equally favourable to agriculture; but some who are not yet well acquainted with the country, raise some doubts respecting the extent and importance of our advantages on that score. As they might operate against the successes of our agricultural efforts, let us examine minutely that important question. No person will dispute that, during the summer months, our people will work not only with more cheerfulness, but yet to more advantage, when not oppressed by the excessive heat of warmer climates; and there is no doubt that our dry cold winters are much more apt to invigorate a man, and prepare him for hard labour, than these open, wet, and changeable winters of more southern positions. The same influence must operate also upon the working faculties of the animals employed on the farms. But it is alleged, that we have to winter them much longer than in those countries where the snow covers the ground for a few days only, and at different periods of the winter. Granted; but if it is disadvantageous in that point, the advantages offered to the farmer by a durable snow, would more than compensate double and triple the addition of a few hundred pounds of hay given to the creatures on his farm; that alone of covering your

grain in the winter would be more than sufficient. But who does not feel daily during the sleighing time, the valuable advantages of this easy, speedy, and economical mode of travelling, besides thus forming a friendly carpet to the country, preserving all vegetation from frost! Neither must we forget, that every lane and road becomes a turnpike for every citizen of the country to travel, in whatever direction his interest or inclination may lead him. Picture to yourselves, instead of that, a constant succession of deep mud, of hard frozen ground, and sometimes a mixture of both; would not your oxen and horses then have a great deal more trouble to perform the same work, and yet lose so much strength and flesh as to require at least as much additional food, as to more than overbalance the sum of hay, that you are to give your creatures in keeping them longer in the stable?

'The objections to the wintering of our cattle seems to be stronger when applied to cows and sheep. For the first, I refer you to those farmers of England, Germany, Belgic, and Switzerland, who prefer to have them precluded from the fields during even the most open and mild winters. Ask Felenberg, that illustrious theoretical and practical farmer, to whose agricultural school are sent scholars from different parts of Europe; ask him why, in the midst of a large and productive farm and fine pasture grounds, he prefers to have his milch cows confined entirely in the stable, as well as his oxen and horses, not only in the winter, but all the year! As to the sheep, if they do not repay you by the addition of health and wool, the difference, if any, is but small. Some will tell you, that we could not preserve our sheep from freezing, if we were not to shut them in close stables, the most improper place for sheep. I will endeavour to show them their error, by quoting two authentic facts: Last winter, the most severe ever felt in the United States, I kept a large flock of merino sheep entirely in the open field, without any shelter, not even a rack, as their hay was daily thrown to them upon the snow. The other fact, no less conclusive, is more curious. In the fall of 1816, Mr. Wells, of Hartford, (Conn.) sent a flock of three hundred sheep to one of Galvoze islands near us; they were left all the winter without any other food than what they could find in the woods, yet they were found in the spring in very good order, indeed, much better than when driven there. There was but one of the flock lost, and that was a young buck, supposed to have been killed by an old one. I have thought this fact the more interesting to be noticed, as it may tend more effectually than any other to explain how we are indebted to our relative situation with Lake Ontario, for the comparative mildness of our winters with that of more southern situations. Without attributing the northwest winds, which in the winter are softened by passing over the bodies of unfrozen water, arrive to us with a more moderate influence, how would we explain that difference of the cold between our situation and more southern countries? Without making an effort upon your memories to recal too distant epochs, remember only last winter, while you were reading accounts of travellers being impeded in their progress at the end of February and beginning of March in the southern parts of Pennsylvania, and even in the northern parts of Maryland, by the too great depth of snow; and while you was shocked by the more lamentable details in the newspapers, of the death of several persons, frozen in countries still farther south; then you had no more than snow sufficient to facilitate your communications, and not one instance of

a single person, either inhabitant or foreigner, having suffered essentially from the cold.

‘At this very moment we read in the public journals, and hear from travellers, that to the east and west of us, in Vermont and at Buffalo, they have three feet of snow; while we have scarcely found snow enough to come here in our sleighs, from the different parts of the country. We can even at this time communicate by vessels with the opposite shore in Canada, while the Delaware is frozen over near Philadelphia.

‘Now, if we attend more particularly to the benefits of our geographical situation, we shall find in it new motives of emulation and encouragement. More than one hundred miles of navigation for the largest ships, borders our country in those points where it receives the tribute of the waters of the immense Lakes, justly termed inland seas. By these you can communicate with the inhabitants on the borders of those Lakes at your choice, either to take them your produce, or receive theirs in exchange, as mutual advantage shall dictate. Their daily increasing population have to turn their eyes towards you to reach the desired market, and will have travelled two-thirds their way to gain your position. From Lake Ontario, that large body which seems to support and invigorate all our exertions, observe those two great water communications, which like two great arms springing from its body, carry our produce to two of the greatest markets in the new world. Anxious to court your preference, you see what vast plans of improvement are planned on both sides of us to render our communications still more easy. To this position we owe, in a great measure, the high price we have obtained for all kinds of produce, and chiefly potash and wheat. How encouraging it must be for the farmer, when he reflects that since the first settlement of this county, wheat, which grows here luxuriantly, has commanded a price nearly as high as if his farm had been at the gates of New-York or Montreal. Are we not too, peculiarly favoured by a bountiful distribution of water in the interior of our country: three handsome bays and as many rivers to facilitate all our communications, harbour our navy, and provide us with an abundant supply of fish for exportation and home consumption. I will not quote the numberless streams which, during the uncommon drought of last year, have proved durable, and left not destitute the numerous and valuable mills and water-works spread over all parts of our county. Must we not at the same time be sincerely grateful to Providence, when, looking upon such an abundance of water, we find that when we enjoy all the benefits they can afford in other countries, we are absolutely exempt from the great inconveniences which in other parts result from their overflowing! You have the greatest evidence of it this year, when there was such a fall of rain, and not a field injured, not one communication intercepted in our country.

‘We find, gentlemen, as great encouragement in our soil. Generally of the first quality, warm and rich; not one tenth part of it can be called waste land, and that offers the greatest help to the farmer; there he finds the rich iron ore, or those fine yellow and white pine groves, and the red cedar; not one mountain, but easy hills and gentle undulated surface. Every kind of grain can be produced here. The land is chiefly favourable to wheat, peas, and indian corn. The latter, however, will not, I hope, be so much attended to, as it has been in former years in this county. Let us leave it to those where peas cannot produce as they do here; for I even think that corn requires too much hand work to be

profitable any where in the United States. A great many kinds of fruit trees can be cultivated to advantage, and we have been too negligent in that respect; though we had motives of great encouragement in observing the natural productions of our forests, or the success of our neighbours, who being more to the north, warranted us at least as great a reward for our attention to our orchards. The apple, cherry, walnut, hickory-nut, and plum, are found in abundance in almost all the forests of this country. Even the grape is found growing spontaneously, chiefly on the banks of our rivers, and often comes to maturity.

‘In quoting this last production of our country, far from me is the wish to raise in your minds the expectation to cultivate it otherwise than in your gardens. Was the climate the most favourable to the growth of the vine, as in my native country, in what they call the garden of France, and where I myself cultivated with success the grape—I would guard you from making the attempt to have a vineyard. It requires all hand labour, and except one single month in the year, the hand of man must be constantly employed about the vine. The average price of hands employed to that culture is, in France, 18 cents, food included; and here you could not procure the work done for less than three times that sum. In both countries the vine will require pretty near an equal proportion of the application of the hand of man.

‘How different is the cultivation of grain. Here the horses or oxen do the greatest part of the work, and where they can be purchased at the same price, and kept much cheaper than in Europe, the advantage is most evident. For the sum which it would cost to manure, plough and sow to grain an acre of the best lands, either in England, France, or Germany, we can here not only buy an acre of as good quality, but can clear it, surround it with good fences, and sow it. This same acre, also, will produce us at least as great a quantity as the European acre. But it may be said, that it is new cleared land that yields as much. To this it may be answered, that this county furnishes many fields which have been cultivated for fifteen years, and produce abundant crops of grain and hay alternately and without rest; and last year yielded, without the help of manure, as large crops of wheat as the first year.

‘Though the greatest part of the land cultivated here does not require manure, you have a certain proportion which would be benefited by it. Our farmers must feel most encouraged when they shall have recourse to this improvement of their fields. Consider how happily situated they are in that important point; independent of our barn manure, we can procure to ourselves, with the greatest facility, abundance of ashes and lime, and salt and plaster can also be found not far from us upon the shores of the Lake.

‘It remains for me to answer one objection which was made against the success of the quiet and steady pursuits of our agriculture and manufactures. In appearance it was a solid one, but in reality as frivolous as all the others we have now passed in review. I allude to those apprehensions which many have entertained by our situation on the frontiers. I need not tell those that there is no country in the world displaying more riches, accumulated by agriculture, than those most extensive frontiers, Flanders and Belgium, which have been for ages the theatre of bloody wars. It might be answered, that if the farmers of those European frontiers had by the proximities of the contending armies, the great advantage of selling their produce at very advanced prices; such an advantage was often too dearly bought, when no respect was paid to

individual properties, when their lives and that of their families were equally exposed to the cruelty of the conqueror, or revenge and rage of the vanquished. In this instance, we have the benefits without being exposed to the losses. It does not behoove me to mention here, the powerful political reason, why the English have not and will not authorize depredations upon private property, and will never molest the peaceable inhabitants. If there is one here who feels the least uneasiness in that respect, let my silent answer set him at perfect quietness. I will merely point to him from yonder windows upon the right and left; those two stupendous stone buildings, harbouring those numerous and precious machines, calculated to deprive England of the greatest benefits they had been deriving from their intercourse with the United States. Indeed, it reflects much honour upon the patriotism and energy of those who united for this laudable purpose. They were built as it were under the mouth of the English cannon, whose thundering sound mixed itself with the noise of the peaceful instruments of the mechanics, who were quietly building those factories. As to the Indians, we cannot be deemed as being upon a frontier, relatively to them; since between them and us we have a large and well settled country. The test of last war with England has taught us to be hereafter perfectly free from the fear of Indians.

‘Why, then, my fellow citizens, with such uncommon advantages, have we yet so many among us who have not made more rapid progress towards the desired aim—a competent and independent prosperity? We find the answer in two able productions, by persons in this county unknown to me, but with whom I sympathize sincerely, in reply to this important question. The first, terming himself “a Jefferson Farmer,” answers, “Bad management, I fear, must be the reply! If it is attributable to any other cause, how comes it that a few farmers among us who have managed well, have accumulated wealth with astonishing rapidity? Do we not know that ten acres cultivated in the best manner will support a pretty large family? A farmer who has from five to ten times that amount of land, surely ought to lay up a considerable sum yearly. There is no difficulty in so doing if the right course is pursued.” The other, who signs himself “a Friend to the Society,” tells us, “Our soil, though extremely productive, has been too much neglected, the attention of the people has been too much turned to speculations, and almost any business has been followed for a livelihood rather than that of the plough. The idea of getting rich at once has infatuated the people.”

‘Let us then unite all our efforts, and, convinced of the peculiar advantages of our situation, let us consider that the wisest and most honourable way to realize them, is to take all proper measures for the advancement of agriculture. Let us consider it as the safest means of ensuring morality, happiness, comfort and wealth; and what is more valuable, to patriotic feelings, the freedom and happiness of these United States whereof nothing can so essentially contribute—it being most undoubtedly the base on which freedom and happiness are founded.’

From the proceedings of the Society, we extract the following resolution in favour of domestic manufactures.

The following preamble and resolution was offered by General Brown, and unanimously adopted:

‘Whereas, it becomes all men who profess to be engaged in promoting the great work of national economy, to be “living examples” of the

doctrines or principles they teach; and as in the opinion of this Society, it is of vital importance to our country that such wise and liberal provision be made, by those who are intrusted with the duty of legislation, as will sustain her infant manufactures: we believe that we can best evince this sentiment by recommending to the members of the Society to abstain from the use of all foreign fabrics and productions, to the extent that may be found practicably consistent with the respective duties they are called upon in life, and by *resolving*, that each and every member of this Society who shall after the regular meeting of the Society in October next, be in the habit of wearing cloth or cotton garments as the essential articles of dress, not of the growth of the United States, shall pay to the Treasurer of the Society five dollars annually, to be distributed in premiums for the encouragement of agriculture and manufactures.'

We cannot close this article without copying the following letter from the late President Adams, which is extremely curious and characteristic.

Letter from Hon. John Adams.

Quincy, February 12, 1818.

SIR,

I have received, and read with pleasure, an Address to the Agricultural Society of Jefferson County, in the state of New-York, and as I know not from whom it came, who should I thank for it, but its author? I rejoice in every new society which has agriculture for its object, and see with delight that the spirit is spreading through the United States. If I could worship any of the heathen gods, it would be old Saturn, because I believe him to be only an allegorical personification of Agriculture, and the children he devoured to be only his own grapes and figs, apples and pears, wheat and barley. I agree with you, in the main, in every sentiment, particularly relative to grapes and corn; yet we cannot have perfect roast beef, nor perfect roast spare-ribs, nor perfect poultry, without maize. We must, therefore, sacrifice a little luxury to a great deal of public good. From the style of this address, I should not have suspected it to have been written by any other than a native of this country.

Thirty-nine years ago I little thought I should live to see the heir apparent to the princely palaces and garden of Passy, my fellow-citizen in the republican wilderness of America, laying the foundation of more ample domains, and perhaps more splendid palaces. I observed the motto of the Hotel de Valentinnis, which I had then the honour to inhabit, 'Se sta bene non se move.'—'If you stand well, stand still.' But you have proved the maxim not to be infallible; and I rejoice in it.

Your sincere well wisher,
and most humble servant,

JOHN ADAMS.

Le Ray De Chaumont, Esq.

ART. III.—*The Universal Receipt Book, &c.* by Priscilla Home-spun. *Second Edition.* Philadelphia, 1818.

A New System of Domestic Cookery, by a Lady, a new Edition. New York, 1817.

THE labours of the cook are interesting to all classes of the community. They may be said emphatically to 'come home to mens business and bosoms,' they afford the grand restorative for

that corporeal sickness which ariseth from dinner deferred, and like the literary pursuits of Cicero 'adolescens alunt senectutem oblectant secundas res ornant, adversis solatium præbent, peregrinantur & rusticantur.' They have therefore had their votaries and disciples, and in this age of theory, have of course been systematically arranged and formed into a science. As we conceive it our duty to keep our readers acquainted with the progress of philosophy in all its branches, we had intended to give them some account of the works prefixed to this article, the most recent we believe of the publications on this important subject. We find however in the last number of the *Edinburgh Magazine* a review of several of the last English and French treatises on cookery, which we prefer extracting, as it contains much curious learning, and displays a practical knowledge of a science with which, reviewers in general, are alas! but theoretically acquainted.

Le Cusnier Imperial. Par Mons. Viard. Paris. 1815.—*The London and Country Cook, or Accomplished Housewife.* By Mary Carter. London. 1779.—*Cookery and Pastry, as taught by Mrs. M'Iver.* Edin. 1787.—*A Complete System of Cookery.* By Hannah Glass. Edin. 1763.—*Domestic Cookery.* By a Lady London. 1807.

COOKERY is unquestionably the most excellent of all sciences. It is entitled to this distinction from the measure in which it contributes to our comfort and gratification, from the engaging simplicity of its details, and the frequency of the enjoyments which it confers. The mathematician, the astronomer, the natural historian, and the metaphysician, contribute largely to increase our knowledge, but add nothing to our enjoyments; and however wide and extended the range of their discoveries may be, there is much reason to fear they will leave us at last just as uncomfortable as they found us. In cookery it is not so. Its very end and essence is to enlarge the sphere of our enjoyments: if it does not this, it does nothing; it fails in the very object which it is its sole purpose to accomplish. The records of other sciences are addressed exclusively to the learned, and by the learned only can their merits be appreciated. But the volumes of cookery are addressed to the great body of mankind; all are interested in their contents, and all may profit by their perusal. In this consists the superiority which cookery may boast over every other scientific pursuit; and although these praises may be shared in some degree by the chemist and the physician, yet in their full extent they are applicable only to the *cook*. Nor are these opinions singular. They are the genuine, though perhaps the unexpressed, sentiments of a very great portion of mankind. The world in general betray a mighty unconcern about the rotatory motion of the *earth*, but are all exceedingly interested about the rotatory motion of the *spit*. Nor can it be denied, that the fame of the discoverer of the Georgium Sidus is less widely spread than that of the discoverer of Hervey's sauce. It

is right it should be so. Surely those who most contribute to our happiness are most entitled to our gratitude. What connexion have we, who are inhabitants of the earth, with any other planet than our own? Our fathers had no Georgium Sidus at all, yet they contrived to live pretty comfortably without it; and were it again to disappear from the firmament, I really cannot conceive how we should be much affected by the loss. But deprive us of Hervey's sauce, and you deprive us at once of an *enjoyment*; our beefsteak becomes insipid, and you steal the flavour from our hashes and ragouts.

I am aware that it might appear somewhat absurd, to men of an ignorant and unphilosophical understanding, were I to exemplify my argument by a comparison between the fame of Lundy Foot and that of Lord Wellington. But I have no hesitation in declaring my decided opinion that in this respect the snuff-maker has infinitely the advantage of the Field Marshal. Admitting that the fame of these heroes has been alike widely spread, it remains only that we should estimate the value of the respective celebrity which they enjoy. The fame of the Duke of Wellington can never be called exclusively his own; it is, in fact, shared among thousands; and while we are expressing our admiration of *his* exploits, we are likewise lavishing our praises on the army which he commanded. But who is there to share the honours of the manufacturer of tobacco? An hundred generals will tell you they could have fought Waterloo just as well as Lord Wellington himself. But what tobaccoist will have the impudence to assert that he can manufacture Irish blackguard? If a thousand mouths are open with the praises of the one, thrice that number of noses are *big* with the excellence of the other. The benefits derived from the victories of the general, are benefits bestowed on one nation at the expense of another; it is therefore impossible that he should be universally popular. If Lord Wellington is beloved in England, it is equally reasonable that he should be detested in France: and we find that the fact agrees with the hypothesis. It is not so with the tobaccoist. The benefits of his invention are spread over the whole habitable globe. In every hour, nay in every instant of the day, he is conferring pleasure on thousands. The fame of the general does not commonly increase with age. The enthusiasm of our admiration is not felt by our successors, and the award of glory which we bestow is not always ratified by posterity. But the venerable inventor of *High-toast* has already passed this ordeal of his merits. He has descended in the fulness of his years to the tomb of all the Lundy Feet, ere he yet had 'gathered all his fame.' He has found the most lasting monument in his canisters, and the most honourable epitaph in the label which they bear.*

* To show that I am not altogether without precedent for the parallel which I have here ventured to draw, I beg leave to quote the concluding verse from a very beautiful little poem in praise of Mr. Turner's japan blacking, which appeared in the public prints. From its excellence I

As cookery is the most honourable, so it is the most ancient of sciences. There is no nation so utterly barbarous as to devour their food without some previous preparation, and the appellation of a '*cooking animal*,' may be truly considered as forming the most accurate specific definition of the human race. The progress of cookery is, in fact, the progress of civilization; and it is impossible to trace the improvement of the one, without having our attention perpetually called to the gradations of the other. In the very infancy of society, before the invention of culinary utensils has occurred to his untutored understanding, the savage broils his food on the embers of his fire, and satiates his carnivorous appetite with a '*rasher on the coals*.' When the introduction of a few of the ruder arts has brought with it a proportionate degree of civilization, he becomes naturally partial to a more refined diet. He is speedily initiated into the manufacture of earthen vessels, and his meat being placed in these and heated on the fire, he now regales his bowels with a '*collup in the pan*.' As he is probably not very particular about the mechanism of his *jack*, the step to roast and boil is but a short one; and the addition in the preparation of the latter of a few roots and herbs, will put him in possession of something similar to *barley broth*. Such are the dishes most consonant to a savage appetite, and which, in the exertion of the limited means which he enjoys, he is most naturally enabled to procure. Fixed to a single spot of earth, he is without the means of communication with those, who enjoying a different soil and climate, could furnish him with higher pleasures and afford new gratification to his palate. Of the charms of curry, cayenne, mustard, ketchup, and anchovy sauce, he is yet entirely ignorant. Many ages must elapse before he can hope to regale himself with Stilton cheese and Bologna sausages. It is indeed impossible to look back on the deprivations of our forefathers without a sentiment of pity. A roasted ox, and about a dozen large cauldrons of greens, formed the common meal of the most powerful baron and his dependants. It is not two centuries since the Duchess of Northumberland usually made her breakfast on salt herrings. Yet even in those days the profession of cookery was not wholly undistinguished by the royal favour. The manor of Addington in Surrey is still held by the tenure of *dressing a dish of soup* for the King at his coronation. Stow likewise, in his Survey of London, informs us, that Henry the Eighth granted an estate in Leadenhall Street to '*Mistress Cornewallies, widdow, and her heires, in reward of fine puddings by her made, wherewith she had presented him*.' But perhaps the greatest triumph of human genius in this department was achieved by the chief cook of Louis the Four-

can only attribute it to the pen of Counsellor Phillips, or William Thomas Fitzgerald, Esq.

Who does not feel pride in a Wellington's name,
When the whole of the universe rings with his fame?
So are *Turner* and *Wellington* famous afar,
One the hero of *blacking*, and t'other of *war*!

teenth. On a grand entertainment, he dressed a pair of his Majesty's old slippers with such exquisite skill, that the King and all his courtiers declared it to be the best dish they had ever ate! Such a man was indeed an honour to his age and country: but alas! he has found no successor.

There is certainly no country in Europe in which cookery has made less progress than in Scotland. During the last century, all other sciences and arts have been rapidly advancing amongst us,—commerce has been diffused, and wealth accumulated,—but cookery has stood stock still. We now live not a whit better than our grandfathers did before us. Our taste has become refined in every thing but in *eating*. It is true that our meals are now served with somewhat more formality than formerly. Our dinner tables, perhaps, display a little more ornament, but in our *dinners* themselves there is not the shadow of a change. The disgusting ‘chieftain of the pudding race,’ I admit, has been most properly banished from our board. But there are several of his primitive companions, who, with no better claims to our favour, are still allowed to insult us with their presence. A ‘singed sheep’s head’ is still a guest occasionally met with at a ‘family dinner,’ although he dares not show his nose in ‘company.’ ‘Minced collops’ are a universal favourite, and (I blush to say it) we are even now in some danger of encountering a dish of *tripes*. What indeed can be more shocking than to be addressed, at a dinner table, by a pair of *rosy lips*, in such terms as these: ‘Pray, sir, allow me to help you—I shall send you a *nice* piece of *ruddiken*: pray permit me to add a little of the *monyfly*.’ What can be more abominable than to see a *delicate creature* employed in discussing a plate of *cabbage*, or rendering impure the sweet exhalations of her breathing, by battenning on a dish of *beef steaks and onions*.

“Ye gods! can such things be,
And overcome us like a summer’s cloud,
Without our special wonder?”

The prevalency of the dishes peculiar to Scotland may undoubtedly be traced to a spirit of *economy*. When our forefathers were guilty of the extravagance of killing a bullock or a sheep, it was their fundamental maxim, *that nothing should be lost*. Those portions of the animal which were considered proper for roasting or boiling, of course, were in due season roasted or boiled; but there were other parts far too good to be thrown away. The head was transmitted to the smith’s shop, in order that the process of burning the hair might render it fit for mastication. The sheep’s paunch was cleared of its natural contents, in order to make room for a savoury composition of the liver and the lights. Nay, the very bowels of the animal were put in requisition; and, after undergoing a most *sanguinary* process, made their appearance at table in the shape of *blood puddings*. Such I consider to be the origin of the most brutal diet by which a civilized country was ever disgraced. From the higher orders of society, it must be confessed, these dishes have in a great measure disappeared. But

they are still too prevalent to allow us yet to hope for an exemption from the imputation thrown on us by our neighbours, of being a race of *foul feeders*.

Before directing the attention of my readers to the philosophical treatises, with the titles of which I have embellished my paper, I think it necessary to state that the Reviewer of a cookery book labours under great disadvantages. His own sentiments with regard to the merits of the different dishes submitted to his judgment, are continually liable to change, and he is consequently in considerable danger of committing himself by the inconsistency of his opinions. Should he attempt, for instance, to exercise the duties of his office at an hour when the keen air of the morning has given a double edge to his appetite, he is naturally enamoured of the most substantial dishes, and expresses his fervent admiration of roast beef and Yorkshire pudding, or boiled leg of mutton with caper sauce. But if, on the other hand, he defers his labours till the evening, when he must be engaged at the same moment in the double task of digesting his dinner and his criticisms, he will regard his former favourites with disgust, and be led to declare an exclusive preference of the 'petites cotelettes' and 'sauces piquantes' of the French. Impressed with these important truths, I shall be extremely cautious in offering any remarks on the merits of the different dishes contained in these volumes, and shall principally estimate the value of the different works by the veracity of their receipts, and the precision of their details.

In both these respects, the 'Cuisinier Imperial' is without a rival. Among Mrs. Glass, Mrs. M'Iver, Mrs. Carter, and the author of the 'Domestic Cookery,' he stands

"Ut inter lenta solent viburna cupressi."

He is the sun among half a dozen farthing candles—the Durham ox in a drove of Highland kine. Mrs. M'Iver, for instance, only enumerates nine kinds of soup, Mrs. Carter seventeen, Mrs. Glass twenty, Domestic Cookery thirty-one, but in the Cuisinier Imperial we find one hundred and forty-two! Nor is this a solitary instance. In every other department of the book, we find a superiority as strongly marked, and in that of sauces it excels our native works in the almost incredible proportion of 200 to 1.

Monsieur Viard, the author of this invaluable treatise, is now (since the death of Monsieur Beauvillier, the celebrated restaurateur) allowed to be the first 'homme de bouche' in Europe. In his preface, which is characterised by all the native modesty of a Frenchman, he seems not entirely insensible of the fame which he has acquired. He expresses himself thus: 'In order to render this work in every respect *perfect*, I have added a short treatise on wines, which must only be considered as the prelude to a more important work, entitled, 'Topographie Bachique Generale,' in the composition of which I am now engaged with fervour. Aided by an extensive correspondence throughout Europe, I have no doubt of acquitting myself in this high enterprise with all the success which my former works have led the public to anticipate. These

two works will form a complete system of the science of 'Gastronomie,' since I can safely assert, that to eat and drink well myself, and to enable others to do so, has been the chief study of my life. If time is allowed me I shall likewise publish some new discourses with regard to the *art of digesting*, which, I flatter myself, will complete the whole range of gastronomical discovery. I have thus acquitted myself of a debt to society, and discharged a sacred duty to the public; and, in surveying the six editions which have already appeared of my work, I may safely exclaim, in the honest pride of having so honestly discharged the high trust that was committed to me,—

"Exegi monumentum ære perennius,
Non omnis moriar." "

Such are the dignified sentiments of this illustrious cook! A man who, unlike his more vulgar coadjutors, is not content with teaching us how to dress our food, but doubles the obligation, by condescending to instruct us in the most compendious method of digesting it! Indeed, it is impossible to conceive a more useful and important work than that announced in the above extract; and if published under some such *taking* title as 'Digestion made Easy,' or that of 'The whole Art of Digestion explained to the meanest Capacity,' there can be no doubt it will meet with great success. I would particularly recommend the perusal of it to the aldermen and common council of the city of London, and to the reverend members of the General Assembly, before they venture to dine at the table of the Commissioner.

The works on cookery best known in this country are those of Mrs. Glass and Mrs. M'Iver; and though they are both infinitely inferior to the other works enumerated at the commencement of this article, it is to them chiefly that I would now direct the attention of my readers. It would be impossible for a Scotchman to enter on a severe investigation of the deficiencies of Mrs. Glass. She is associated in our imagination with the remembrance of all the good dinners, which for the last thirty years, it has been our good fortune to devour: her name is so linked with all the dainties which delighted us in our childhood, as to render it almost sacrilege to visit her with the severity of criticism. Her work is certainly much better than that of Mrs. M'Iver, her rival and successor; but in truth it is high time for both these ladies to walk the carpet. They were undoubtedly great women in their day; but that day has gone by, and a person of any taste or fashion would now no more think of constructing a dinner on their receipts, than a Prince's Street loungee would of astonishing the public by appearing in the bag wig and embroidered breeches of his grandfather.

It is a propensity peculiar to our culinary Blue Stockings, to be eternal dabblers in physic. We are assaulted in almost every page with some such recipe as the following: 'A certain Remedy for a Consumption'—'A Cure for Wind in the Stomach'—'A Speedy Cure for the Gripes.' The latter of which (given by Mrs. Carter)

consists of an infusion of sweet oil, Jamaica pepper, brandy, and green tea; as if a young lady would not infinitely rather suffer gripes for a twelve-month, than swallow a single drop of this cursed mixture. Let me now present my readers with Mrs. M'Iver's

'Jelly for a Consumption.'

'Take a pound of *hartshorn shavings*, nine ounces of eringo root, a choppin of *bruised snails*, the shells taken off and cleaned; take two *vipers*, or four ounces of the powder of them, two ounces of *devil's dung*; add to these a pint of *pig's blood* and a choppin of water, and let them boil to one pint. Strain it through a sieve with a mutchkin of Rhenish wine and half a pound of molasses; then run it through a jelly-bag, and put it in small pots. The patient may swallow two tea-cupfuls of it in a day.'

I can only say, that if the patient does so *with impunity*, it will at least prove the strength of his stomach, if not of his lungs.

Although Mrs. Glass and Mrs. M'Iver are rather too unmindful of the old maxim, '*Ne sutor ultra crepidam*,' yet their aberrations are venial compared with those of Mrs. Carter. The digressions of the latter lady are indeed perfectly intolerable, both from their nature and their frequency. Thus, in the very middle of her chapter on Jellies and Blanc-manges, she scruples not to introduce such heterogeneous matter as the following: 'Receipt for a Liquor to kill Bugs'—'A Capital Drench for a Horse'—'How to fatten a Pig'—'Cure for the Glanders,' &c. &c. And yet Mrs. Carter, in her preface, has the assurance to assert, 'that she trusts there are few receipts in the following volume which will not be found at once *palatable* and useful!'

Both Mrs. Glass and Mrs. M'Iver are great dilettantis in orthography. They are continually introducing us to such articles as '*Currant gelly*,' '*Rasberry giam*,' '*Charadoons de framage*,' and '*Mutton ragoos*.' They are not aware, perhaps, that the latter word is derived from the French verb '*ragouter*,' to revive a taste for any thing; a revival which, with regard to some of their dishes, I for one am by no means desirous of obtaining. Or perhaps it may be derived from '*regouter*,' to taste again; an action which can be achieved, on many of our English '*ragoos*,' only by men in the highest state of robust health.

I certainly cannot pass without reprehension the extreme laxity of language in which these femmes de cuisine, but more especially Mrs. M'Iver, think proper to indulge themselves. There is a want of precision in her details, which is, to say the least of it, extremely unscientific. Thus we are generally told to put in a *handful* of one thing, a *good deal* of another, a *little* of a third, instead of accurately specifying the precise quantity. As a specimen of the general style of the work, take the following directions how to

'Stew a Rump of Beef.'

'Take your rump and scrape it;' (I trust, for the credit of our Scottish cooks, this direction is superfluous;) 'make some holes in it with a knife, put in spice and salt in every hole, and turn your finger round it. If you choose to stuff your rump, then fill up the holes with

forcemeat. In that case you need not put in the salt and spices in the holes; rub it over with the salt and spices, and let it lie a day or two in that seasoning; take it up the morning it is to be dressed, and dry your rump well with a cloth, and rub it over with beat eggs, and dust it with flour. If it is a very large rump, it will take three hours doing;'

And so on for nearly three pages, does she spin out this interminable receipt. But I have already given a sufficient specimen of the vile and abominable style in which the work is written. It is now high time that I should bring these extracts to a close; but I feel it incumbent on me to visit with proper censure the extreme bad faith displayed in several of Mrs. Glass's receipts. For instance, in order to make *chicken* broth, we are directed to 'take an *old cock* or large fowl, slay it, and break it all to pieces with a rolling-pin,' &c.; and under the head of the article 'Roast Pheasant,' we are desired to 'take a fine *barn-door fowl*, cut off its head, *sew on* the head of a *cock pheasant*;' and when dressed, we are afterwards told, 'the best judges will not know the difference.' Mrs. Glass will perhaps have the goodness to excuse my not yielding an implicit faith to her assertions on this subject.

On the whole, it would be injustice to deny that there are few writers on cookery from whom much instruction cannot be derived. They in general contain a great deal which requires to be amended, but a great deal also which may be turned to advantage. That the science has not yet attained the fulness of perfect development, is at least as much the fault of the patrons as of the practitioners. But even as things are, we must all admit, that the many bad dinners we are compelled to eat, owe their wretchedness more frequently to the stinginess of the hostess than the incapacity of her cook. It would be ungrateful in me to close a dissertation on this subject without bearing testimony to the merits of the hotel from which I write. Which of the cookery books I have named is the oracle of the kitchen, I have never inquired; but there is a nameless *gout* in certain of the dishes done up here, that reminds me of the most fortunate efforts of the Beauvilliers and the Viards of a more refined metropolis. I conclude briefly, but confidently, Come and try.

"Segnius irritant animos demissa per anres
Quam quæ sunt naribus subjecta fidelibus," &c.

B. P.

Oman's Hotel, W. Register Street, Dec. 10th.

ART. IV. *A Dialogue between Aristotle and Lord Bacon.*

Aristotle. I KNOW not, lord Bacon, how you can exonerate yourself from the charge of a want of candour and magnanimity, in the very severe and unjust strictures in which you have indulged in various parts of your works, against Plato, myself, and our contemporary philosophers.* While you are lavish of your encomiums upon our predecessors, the masters of the Ionic and Italian schools, with whose writings you could have been

* In his *Instauratio Scientiarum*, passim, as well as his other tracts.

but very imperfectly acquainted, you allow yourself the most unqualified invectives and even virulent abuse of us who lived at the most enlightened age of Greece, and have undoubtedly comprised in our several productions, some of which were faithfully transmitted to you, all the taste, learning, and philosophy of those times. I could have endured without a murmur, that my works should have passed through all that variety of fortune they have undergone in ages of darkness and ignorance, sometimes being venerated as oracles from whose sacred decisions there was no appeal; at other times condemned to be burnt by the sentence of inquisitors, accordingly as they were supposed to be favourable or adverse to the prevailing errors and superstitions: but I had a right to anticipate a far different reception of them from you, who evidently possessed an understanding in the highest degree discriminating and inquisitive, and were, of course, capable of comprehending and rightly estimating their value. Great minds, whom Nature has cast in her finest moulds, and formed with so many corresponding sympathies, and who alone, in fact, can ever thoroughly comprehend each other, should surely be just to the merits of one another; while the ignoble and unmanly task of detracting from the fame of competitors and rivals should be left to those inferior spirits who are alike incapable and unconscious of excellence.

Bacon. Your resentment, Aristotle, is natural, and your reprehension severe; but I am certainly inclined to think, that you will feel disposed to abate the force of the one, and soften the asperity of the other, when you take into consideration all the circumstances of the case, and duly reflect upon the peculiar nature and object of my animadversions, and the motives by which I was influenced. If on some occasions I have been led into what you might denominate illiberal and harsh criticisms upon *your* works, those of Plato, and your contemporary philosophers, it is to be remarked in my justification, that these strictures had no reference to your general and acknowledged merits as writers.—Upon your pretensions in this respect, and more especially those of the Stagyræite, I have repeatedly bestowed my most decided and unqualified panegyrics.* No one admires more enthusiastically than myself that purity of diction and compactness of expression, that wonderful accuracy and precision of thought, that clearness and force of conception, and profound insight into men and things, which, amidst all the disadvantages under which we view your pieces, are still perceptible in many parts of them, those unrivalled powers of investigation and analysis, and that masterly address

* These panegyrics will be found interspersed through every part of his works; and even his grand discovery of the new method of investigation he attributes, with becoming modesty, rather to the happiness of circumstances than to any superiority in his powers over those of the ancient philosophers. In his *Novum Organum*, Aphorism 22, he thus expresses himself:—‘*Antiquis auctoribus suis constat honos, atque adeo omnibus; quia non ingeniorum aut facultatum inducitur comparatio, sed viæ; nosque non judicis sed indicis personam sus-tinemus.*’

and skill with which you constructed, out of all the materials in your possession, the noble fabric of your philosophy, and which will ever entitle your productions (whatever may be the abatements from these praises necessary to be made on account of the extreme brevity and abruptness of your style, the occasional obscurity and inconclusive force of your arguments, and the subtilties of your logic) to a rank among the sublimest monuments of human genius. My objections were not levelled against your productions as efforts of genius, many of which, even in the imperfect state in which they are conveyed to the moderns, must ever be regarded as inimitable; but against your method of philosophizing, which I am convinced will ever be found incompetent to a just interpretation of nature, and which, had it been adhered to, would effectually have closed the door against all those improvements in modern science which have done so much honour to human reason, and have left mankind to grope for ever amidst the darkness of ignorance and error.

Aristotle. But in the warmth of your zeal to introduce your own method of investigation, and your ambition to rear to yourself a monument, by the destruction of the old philosophy and the establishment of the new, have you not allowed yourself to be betrayed into the most egregious misapprehensions and shameful misrepresentations? In that sentence of proscription which, assuming the authority of a dictator in the republic of letters, you have undertaken to pronounce upon your predecessors, have you not lost sight of the circumstances under which I wrote, that artful system of sophistry by which all truth was attempted to be confounded, and the very foundations of certainty upturned, with which I had to contend?

Bacon. This consideration, I have always been of opinion, presents the best apology which can be offered for that quibbling logic which every where deforms your works, and covers them, at times, with a veil of impenetrable obscurity, and it must be admitted that you foiled and vanquished the sophists of your time with their own weapons. But even that logic or dialectics to which you had recourse to the discomfiture of sceptics, and which with such unrivalled ingenuity and address you have raised into a regular structure, was not only a useless instrument in the advancement of science, as Mr. Locke has shown with his usual clearness and force,* but was attended also with serious disadvantages—While your resorting to syllogisms to give some degree of certainty and permanence to the principles of knowledge, seemed to imply the imbecility of reason in the investigation of truth, and the necessity of having recourse to adventitious aid; it is to be observed also that this mode of reasoning by syllogisms, instead of contributing to the promotion of true science, was rather calculated to give plausibility and permanence to error.†

* Treatise on Human Understanding, book 4, chap. 17.

† See *Novum Organum*, Aphorisms 11th, 12th, and 13th.—*Sicut scientiæ, quæ nunc habentur, inutiles sunt ad inventionem operum. ita logica quæ nunc*

Aristotle. But do you not allow your understanding to be imposed upon in this matter, by not discriminating my philosophy from the endless subtilties and, as your own Locke has called it, learned gibberish, of the schoolmen, that bright fraternity of my followers, who, laying hold of my logic, perverted it to purposes never contemplated by me, and under the sanction of my name, erected a strange and ridiculous fabric of quibbling and intellectual foolery?

Bacon. I am willing to admit that my prejudices against your philosophy may have been increased by the abuse to which it was put by the schoolmen; but had not you yourself countenanced this abuse, and, in fact, led to it by an easy and natural transition, from your familiar habit of applying your logic, on all occasions, as the instrument of investigating nature, and even with preposterous absurdity in solving the phenomena of the physical world?*

Aristotle. And pray, with what other instrument are we furnished by Nature? Is not logic the art of directing Reason in her exercise towards the discovery of truth? and what other guide have we to conduct us in the path of knowledge, but that heavenly light of reason which the Creator hath kindled within us?

Bacon. True, without the light of reason we should be in utter darkness, and in tracing the immutable habitudes and relations of things, in the investigation of those abstract truths in which it can supply itself with the materials out of which to frame its combinations and conclusions, it is our only, and when properly regulated, an infallible guide: but in the interpretation of nature, the rules of logic are futile or pernicious, and reason is a dim and insufficient light, except when aided by that powerful instrument of induction; the use of which it is my purpose to recommend in my *Instauratio Scientiarum*, and more particularly in my *Novum Organum*.

Aristotle. I know that great noise has been made about this method of induction in the modern schools; and that you have arrogated to yourself much praise on this account, and heaped undeserved censure upon the ancients: but I am by no means convinced that your title to this discovery is as clear and incontestible as you would have it.† Have you the confidence to assert that this instrument of induction has in no instance been employed by me? Do you perceive no traces of your *novum organum*, as you are pleased to denominate it, in my treatises de Cælo, de Meteorologicis, de Anima, mechanical questions, my problems, my animated nature, my moral and political philosophy, and, in fact, in all those of my works in which the development of the constitution

habetur, inutilis est ad inventionem scientiarum.—Logica, quæ in usu est ad errores (quæ in notionibus vulgaribus fundantur) stabiliendos et figendos valet, potius quam ad inquisitionem veritatis: ut magis damnosa sit quam utilis. Syllogismus ad principia scientiarum non adhibetur, ad media axiomata frustra adhibetur, cum sit subtilitati naturæ longe impar; assensum itaque constringit, non res.

* Aphorism 63, *Novum Organum*.—Primi generis exemplum in Aristotele maximè conspicuum est, qui philosophiam naturalem dialectica sua corrumpit: quem mundum ex categoriis efficerit, &c.

† See Gillie's Analysis of the Works of Aristotle.

and laws of nature is my object? In my treatise de Cælo, when I deduce the inference that the earth is a sphere, from the natural operation of the principle of gravitation, and from observing the circular shadow which it casts upon the moon during an eclipse; and moreover, that it is not a very extensive sphere, from the circumstance that those stars which are perceptible to the observer in the heavens, in one degree of latitude, entirely disappear when he is transferred a few degrees farther to the north or south; are not these instances of a palpable and even masterly induction?

Bacon. I grant that these were decided cases, not only of induction, but, as you have said, a most masterly induction. It was by efforts of this kind that you entitled yourself to the praise of being one of the purest intelligences and most exalted geniuses that ever lived.*

Aristotle. About what then are we disputing? Where is the distinction between your method of investigation and mine, between the organum of lord Bacon and the organon of Aristotle?

Bacon. It is, as I apprehend, because this point has not been sufficiently scrutinized and sifted, that a controversy has been raised upon it by one of your learned and intelligent commentators and translators.† I do not deny that you have frequently used in your works a partial and subordinate degree of induction. In those branches of science which consist in the interpretation of nature, in developing her laws, and establishing great principles of truth and duty from an observation of her, it is impossible to reason without it. The most illiterate cultivator of the soil makes use of this instrument when he predicts a change of weather, a dry or rainy season from the state of the atmosphere. You could not have established one of those sublime maxims of moral and political wisdom with which your treatises upon those topics are enriched, without either expressly or implicitly passing through this process, of a subordinate degree of induction.

Aristotle. I am unable to perceive your bearing.—Am I to understand, that it is only in the extent to which the instrument was employed by us, that the difference subsists between us?

Bacon. By no means.—There is a more radical and important distinction than that. Not only did you use but a partial induction and I recommend an ample and complete one, but this did not constitute the vehicle by which you endeavoured to attain to truth and certainty. Logic was your instrument of investigating nature; induction was mine. Hence, contented with a slight and cursory contemplation of nature, and a partial collection of pheno-

* Aphorism 6.3, Nov. Org.—Neque illud quenkum moveat, quod in libris ejus de animalibus, et in problematibus, et in aliis suis tractatibus, versatio frequens sit in experimentis. Ille enim prius decreverat, neque experientiam, ad constituenda decreta et axionata ritè consuluit; sed postquam arbitrio decrevisset, experientiam ad sua placita tortam circumducit, et captivam; ut hoc etiam nomine, magis accusandus sit, quam sectatores ejus moderni (scholasticorum philosophorum genus) qui experientiam omnino deseruerunt.

† Gillie.

mena, you spent your time and wasted your strength in constructing ingenious and plausible theories out of the scanty materials in your possession, or in spinning, like the spider, the web of visionary systems out of your own brain. I have fully explained this matter in my *Novum Organum*, aphorism 19th.—*Duæ viæ sunt, atque esse possunt, ad inquirendam et inveniendam veritatem; altera a sensu et particularibus advolat ad axiomata maximè generalia, atque ex iis principiis, eorumque immota veritate, judicat et invenit axiomata media; atque hæc via in usu est: altera a sensu et particularibus excitat axiomata, ascendendo continenter et gradatim, ut ultimo loco perveniatur ad maximè generalia, quæ via vera est, sed intentata.* The first of these modes I have denominated the anticipation of nature, and the last the interpretation of nature. The former was adopted by you, the latter I claim the honour of introducing to the attention and practice of the philosophical world.

Aristotle. Nevertheless, where is the importance of the distinction? If the result be the same; if from a few particulars we can leap to a just conclusion, whence the necessity of travelling over the whole compass of nature in quest of instances, before we establish any maxims of philosophy or principles of science?

Bacon. I will explain to you the importance of the distinction between your method of reasoning and mine, and the indispensable necessity, in order to arrive at a just philosophy, of a rigid adherence to my method. After only a partial collection of phenomena, if we undertake to deduce general inferences, or what I have denominated axiomata generalia, we sally forth into the dark, and almost always arrive at erroneous and false principles; or if perchance they are true, we cannot repose with entire confidence and full assurance upon them; they do not rest upon the foundation of certainty and demonstration. When, therefore, assuming them as settled and established truths, we undertake to form out of them, as is usually done, what I have called axiomata media, or intermediate maxims of philosophy, we involve ourselves in a labyrinth of uncertainty, and our reasoning being vitiated in the outset, we only plunge at every step, more and more deeply into the abyss of error. On the other hand, reflect upon the method of procedure which I recommend. I would have us approach the works of nature for the purpose of contemplation and inquiry, under a deep conviction that they present to us a profound obscure, into which the feeble light of our own understandings cannot penetrate, and through which Reason can make no progress but with the support and assistance of careful observation. Freeing our minds from all errors and prejudices, or its devotion to the numerous idols, as I call them, which occasion them to view every object through a discoloured medium, we should appear at the entrance of the dominions of nature, as when we seek to enter into the kingdom of heaven, like little children, if we are desirous to gain admittance.*

* *Homo, naturæ minister et interpres, tantum facit et intelligit, quantum de naturæ ordine, re vel mente observaverit; nec amplius scit aut potest. Nec manus*

Thus prepared for the enterprise in which we are engaging, we should proceed in the interpretation of nature, *continenter et gradatim*, cautiously and by a just gradation, first carefully examining all the phenomena presented to our inspection, comparing with the utmost attention and discrimination those which are favourable and those unfavourable, and when we have advanced far enough in the matter of observation and experience, settle our *axiomata media* or intermediate principles of science: and having attained this point in our progress, we must advance with equal care and attentive collection of facts, to our *axiomata generalia* or general principles; and when by this process we have remounted to great maxims, we can safely take a retrograde course and apply them to the particular cases that arise. In this path certainty attends us at every step; in the other we soon wander into the dark and intricate by-ways of uncertainty and error. My plan is like building a house out of solid materials, and ascending by regular gradations from its foundation to its top; your's is like attempting to erect the roof and its appertenances before even the foundation itself is finished. To illustrate this matter by the very example with which you have furnished me from your own works.—From the operation of the principle of gravitation and the shadow of the earth upon the moon, you deduced the inference that the earth is a sphere, contrary to the opinion of other philosophers of your time: but upon your principles it ought to have been a perfect globe; upon mine it has been found not to be so, but a spheroid, or flatted at the poles. Here, you perceive, that you rushed too precipitately to your *axioma generale*, the earth is a perfect globe; and had you gone on in your usual progress to form your *axiomata media* from this principle, as for instance, that all bodies upon the earth's surface are equally remote from the centre, the degrees of latitude at the poles are equal to those at the equator, you would have immediately fallen in your calculations into the grossest errors. Upon the plan which I prescribed, these errors have been avoided, by trusting solely to fact and experience.* The truth is, that this very propensity, from a few particular instances to leap to general conclusions, to which the human mind finds so powerful a temptation, in the relief which they afford it from the fatigue of investigation, is the bane of philosophy, and the productive cause of all those idle theories which have been broached,

nuda, nec intellectus sibi permissus, multum valet; instrumentis et auxiliis res perficitur; quibus opus est non minus ad intellectum quam manum. Causa vero et radix fere omnium malorum in scientiis ea una est; quod dum mentis humanæ vires falsò miramus et extollimus, vera ejus auxilia non queramus. Ut non alius ferè sit aditus ad regnum hominis, quod fundatur in scientiis, quam ad regnum cœlorum; in quod, nisi sub persona infantis, intrare non datur.—Nov. Org. Aph. 1, 2, 9, and 68.

* *Gestit enim mens exilire ad magis generalia, ut acquiescat; et post parvam moram fastidit experientiam. Utraque via orditur a sensu et particularibus, et acquiescit in maximè generalibus; sed immensam quiddam discrepant; cum altera perstringit tantum experientiam et particularia cursim; altera in iis rite et ordine versetur. Altera rursus jam a principio constituat generalia quædam abstracta et inutilia; altera gradatim exurgat a dea quæ reverà naturæ sunt notiora.*

and which, unsupported by fact and observation, like the baseless fabrics of a vision, have vanished before the light of truth and experience. The mind of man exhibits but the feebleness of an infant, in its contest with the gigantic strength of nature, and must utterly fail, unless it derive its succours from powerful auxiliaries. You endeavoured to afford it the requisite support in the use of syllogisms; I attain the end by the more potent machine of induction. Your mode, at best, could lead but to bare probability, mine leads to clear and unclouded certainty.

Aristotle. I must acknowledge that light now begins to break in upon my mind on this subject, and I perceive that your method of induction, which, with masterly address, you have illustrated, recommended, and exemplified in your *Novum Organum*, is one of those sublime conceptions which appear in great minds to be the work of inspiration, as if Heaven elevated them nearer to itself, in order that by the expansion of their powers by study and application, they may catch from it a beam of its sacred light. But before I give way to a sudden impulse in your favour, and admit your claims without sufficient examination, allow me to inquire, are you perfectly certain that you have not in this case derived your hint from me? You admit that I made use of this instrument, though in a subordinate degree, and without a comprehension of its power; does not his concession divest you of your finest plumes, and rob you of much honour in this great discovery?

Bacon. I know that it has been said, that I have sedulously copied your works, without having the candour and generosity to acknowledge it.* But this is a great mistake. If to have written upon the subjects of natural philosophy, of rhetoric, of morals, of theology, of history, and incidently and briefly upon almost all the branches of science, renders me a follower of your track, I must be content to be considered as such; but surely no one can find any resemblance in the structure of our several works. It fell in with my plan to exhibit specimens of reasoning in many departments of science; but I do not even pretend to have made any considerable advances in a single one. My great purpose was to direct others in the path which they should pursue, in order to the successful cultivation of science. In this attempt I have succeeded beyond my most sanguine expectations.

Aristotle. Nothing can rob you of the glory and immortality which you have purchased by the effort.

Bacon. But you ask me whether I am not in some degree divested of the honour of having conceived my method of induction; from the consideration that it was partially practised by you, and, as I am ready to admit, by every man who ever attempted to reason upon the principles, laws, and operations of nature? Surely you will not for a moment maintain such an opinion. Was the glory of Newton in any measure diminished, from the fact that all mankind well knew, and philosophers admitted, that all bodies

* Gillie's Analysis.

around the earth tend to its centre, for having conceived the sublime idea that upon this principle of gravitation depend all the phenomena of the solar system, and afterwards demonstrating its truth? Was the splendour of the plan projected and executed by Columbus, which led to the discovery of the New World, lessened from the consideration, that many minor discoveries had been made by preceding navigators along the coasts of Africa and Europe? My method of induction was a voyage of discovery, a project of circumnavigating the whole globe of nature, in quest of materials out of which to construct the solid fabric of science. Upon this method of procedure there are no limits to be set to the progress which may be made, by continued accumulations. Victory after victory may be obtained, and conquest after conquest achieved in the departments of nature. Advancing by a slow but sure progress, through many a devious track, indeed, and arduous ascent, we may at length reach those exalted heights from whence we may catch a view of the sublimest mysteries of nature, and in a kind of philosophic vision, from a contemplation of the past and present be able to predict the future.

Aristotle. You elevate my mind with the view which you present to it of this sublime philosophy. While my method of philosophizing was a taper which shed a glimmering and dubious light through a very limited space, yours is the sun diffusing a full, clear, and searching lustre through universal nature.

Bacon. The results of the methods which I prescribed to the philosophic world, have born more than a due proportion to any merits you may be willing to allow me in the discovery. It is the great instrument by which, in all the branches of modern science, such wonders have been achieved. It was by following in the track which I had marked out that Newton has developed, to the wonder and astonishment of mankind, the awful and hitherto impenetrable mysteries of the physical world; that Locke has successfully pursued his way through those dark and shady paths in the domains of Nature, which appeared impervious to the view and inaccessible to the footsteps of men; in a word, that all the modern investigators of nature have so triumphantly extended their researches into her most hidden and remote departments.

Aristotle. Let no one then deny you the meed of praise which you have so justly merited.

Bacon. I readily concede to you the honour of having been one of the greatest philosophers, if not the greatest philosopher of Greece, and one of the purest intelligences that ever lived.

Aristotle. And I cannot but allow you the merit of having been that master genius, who, although he can boast of no discoveries in science himself, directed other philosophers in the path which they should tread in order to its successful cultivation; who, by one bold and matchless conception, appropriated all their toils to himself, rendered every structure which they should erect a monument to his memory; and at the same time that he opened to others the inexhaustible fountains of knowledge, made its streams tributary to his fame.

ART. V. *On the Influence of Mental Impressions in producing Change of Function in the Living Body.* By J. R. PARK, M. B. F. L. S. & M. R. I.

THE phenomena produced by mental impressions, or the influence of the passions on the bodily frame, are almost universally classed among those arcana of nature which science has hitherto been unable to explore.

The substitution of a few technical phrases, which here, as elsewhere, has supplied the place of explanation, is now generally admitted to serve only as a subterfuge for ignorance.

It is usual to divide the passions into exhilarating and depressing; and it is assumed, that their influence is primarily exerted upon the action of the heart, one class operating as a stimulus, and increasing its activity, while the other diminish it by acting as a sedative.

To say nothing of a number of facts which are wholly incompatible with this view, it may be easily shown, that it does not explain those very phenomena for which it was expressly designed.

The paleness and tremors that accompany excessive fear, for instance, cannot be accounted for in this way; for impaired circulation, though it may occasion paleness, and even fainting, if the cause be sufficient, as loss of blood, yet was never known to produce those violent tremblings which, in extreme fear, cause the teeth to chatter, as it is termed, and agitate the frame like the cold fit of an ague.

But, further, there are many effects arising from mental emotions which are merely local, and therefore not explicable by a cause that is general, and must operate alike on all parts, as altered action of the heart. We cannot refer to this organ, for example the suffusion of the face from shame, nor the flow of tears from grief.

Should the solution of these phenomena which follows, be thought more satisfactory, or the principles on which it rests, appear new, it is but just to acknowledge, that they in part derive their origin from hints that may be found in the writings of preceding authors, especially Whytt, Bichat, Darwin, and Hartley.

According to Whytt, the human frame considered as a sentient being, owes the exertion of its automatic movements to the influence of impressions unconsciously made upon its internal organs, constantly and uniformly prompting them to action.

Now the regularity of their action is liable to be disturbed by more powerful impressions from without, change of feeling causing change of action. And such changes may be effected either by causes acting corporeally, as already shown, or they may proceed from those which act mentally, as remains to be explained; the sentient faculty being alike susceptible to the influence of both.

Such is the general principle upon which the operation of the passions appears to depend; while the different effects produced by distinct emotions, will be found to result from the peculiar nature of each.

As the object, however, at present in view is, to investigate their physiological effects, rather than their metaphysical nature and origin, the latter will be considered no farther than is indispensable for accurately defining the terms employed.

It will not be necessary to inquire, whether each be the result of a separate propensity, or spring from the combined influence of several: nor will there be occasion to enumerate all the forms and varieties they assume, as their general mode of action may be sufficiently illustrated by selecting the most important, the others being either modifications of these, or analogous in their operation and effects.

The most essential in a physiological point of view are, grief, joy, fear, hope, anger, and love; their influence is most clearly evinced, and their excess productive of the most serious consequences.

Others of minor importance are, anxiety, which is merely an alternation of fear and hope; pity, which is sympathetic grief, or participation in the sufferings of another; hatred, which is a less active, but more permanent form of anger; jealousy, which is compounded of love and anger; and envy, which is a compound of anger and ambition.

Besides these, there are some others, such as pride and shame, which may be distinct emotions, but are either too limited in their influence, or too transient in their effects to merit separate examination. The first six appear to be more particularly deserving of attention.

From observing the phenomena of the passions, the general conclusions to be drawn are as follow.

First. That mental impressions act primarily, not upon the heart, but on the brain or organ of the mind; this being the only part endowed with reflex consciousness, and capable of moral feelings. The participation of other parts is secondary, and results from their connexion with the sensorium.

Secondly. It appears, that moral feelings act upon the brain, or organ of mind, just as physical impressions do upon the organs of sense. Corporeal impressions alter the circulation of the sentient organs, so mental feelings affect the circulation of the mental organ.

Thirdly. It will be found, that the changes first produced in the brain, and thence communicated to other parts owing to nervous influence and connexion, have also their immediate seat in the vascular system, and are propagated just as the influence of corporeal impressions is extended to distant parts, through vascular sympathy.

The accuracy of these conclusions will be shown in the separate examination of each passion, and the careful analysis of the phenomena it presents.

GRIEF.

Grief certainly cannot be considered as a pleasing emotion, yet there is one circumstance remarkable in its moral tendency, which

is, the willing abandonment it occasions, disposing the sufferer to indulge in sorrow, with an apathy or indifference for every thing unconnected with its object. The very calls of nature, hunger, and thirst, and even bodily pain, are disregarded in the state of torpor and abstraction it occasions.

Now this peculiarity in its moral nature, appears to modify the influence of grief on the bodily frame, which causes every function to languish, as the symptoms declare.

The marks of bodily participation in the effects of grief, are evinced by a sense of weight and fulness in the head, with flushing of the face and redness of the eyes. These are accompanied by deep sighs, and interrupted respiration. In early life, and moderate grief, a copious flow of tears usually attends, and affords manifest relief: but in more advanced age, and in excessive grief, this relief often fails, and worse consequences are apt to ensue, such as acute pain in the head, actual inflammation, an attack of mania, or convulsive affections, epilepsy, apoplexy, or sudden death.

That the brain is the primary seat of the changes produced, appears from their visibly occurring first in parts contiguous to this organ; while the nature of the symptoms, namely, redness of the face and eyes, with sense of fulness in the head, declares them to reside in the vascular system, and to consist in determination of blood to these parts.

To account for their production, one of two causes must, in strict reasoning, be assigned:—either the blood is sent more forcibly than usual to these parts, or it meets less resistance than usual when it arrives in them; its quantity would not otherwise increase there.

Now grief surely does not belong to the class of exhilarating passions, which are calculated to operate as a stimulus, and accelerate the action of the heart; on the contrary, circulation is, in fact, found to languish, like every other function, and the pulse becomes slow and irregular.

Still, however, the blood accumulates in the vessels of the brain and parts contiguous to it; and since there is no increase in the impulse with which it is sent to them, there must be a diminution in the resistance which these vessels oppose to the force of the fluids distending them; for this is the only remaining cause that can be alleged to account for the unusual congestion they undergo. The point then to be ascertained is, why they oppose less resistance now than usual.

Here the same reasoning which explains the determination of blood occasioned by local irritation, or the redness produced on the surface by sensible impressions, offers also a satisfactory solution of the congestion produced in the brain by mental emotions.

The vessels, in common with other involuntary organs, owe the exertion of their moving power to the susceptibility of internal irritation. The distending force of the blood within is the cause which habitually prompts them to exertion; and the equable resist-

ance they oppose, causes them to maintain at other times a nearly uniform degree of contraction. But when a more powerful impression from without, obscures or effaces the force of the impressions within, their resistance is for a time suspended or diminished; they yield to the distending fluid, and thus determination of blood to the part ensues.

In the passions, the brain is the primary seat of this change, because mental impressions are adapted to act upon the organ of mind, but other parts indirectly participate, especially those contiguous to, and dependant upon the sensorium, conformably with the laws of vascular sympathy.

The vessels, like other parts which are susceptible of irritation, owe their sentient faculty to the nerves that enter into their texture, and derive these nerves from different sources, some from the cerebral and some from the gangliac system.

There is no sufficient reason to doubt, that the capillaries receive their nerves from the same source as the organ of which they form a part. It is therefore to be expected, that these vessels should partake of the nature, and participate in the affections of the parts to which they belong.

Now the external surface and voluntary organs being chiefly supplied with cerebral or spinal nerves, while those of the internal surface and viscera derive theirs principally from the gangliac system, it is easily conceived why the vessels of the surface participate more in mental emotions than those of the centre; and why those of the face, which are contiguous to the brain, are more subject to mental influence, and show more sympathy in sensorial impressions than the rest of the surface; while those of the brain itself, the organ and immediate seat of moral feelings, are, of all others, soonest and most affected by impressions on the mind.

The flow of tears is referable to the same general cause; the contiguity of the lachrymal glands occasioning them to participate in the effects of this local determination, augments, their secretion. Nor is the change confined to them, but extends also to the conjunctiva of the eye and to the mucous membrane of the nose.

That determination of blood to these parts is calculated to produce increased secretion, appears from similar effects attending other affections, which are alike productive of determination, such as catarrh, measles, influenza. And that grief, by operating upon this general principle, occasions a flow of tears, and not from any peculiarity in its moral nature, exclusively belonging to itself, is seen from the same effect attending other mental emotions totally different in their moral nature, and some diametrically opposite to grief, such as joy and laughter.

During childhood, the flow of tears is more readily called forth, owing to the more active circulation attending the growth and evolution of each organ, as explained by Cullen, and consequently the greater mobility of these parts, that prevails in early life.

Why tears, that flow in moderate grief are often suppressed in that which is excessive, is explained by the principle formerly

stated, relative to the alternate action of vessels and their mouths. The mouths, like sphincters, contract when the vessels or ducts leading to them relax, so as to become over-distended. Hence, relaxation of secreting vessels within certain limits only, augments secretion; when excessive, it excites contraction of the excretory mouth, and suppresses secretion again. Accordingly, tears are the effect of moderate grief, while that which is excessive produces often worse consequences, as convulsions, mania, or inflammation of the brain.

The cause of sighing was long ago suggested by Dr. Whytt, who thus pointed out the true principles on which the explanation of the other symptoms was to be sought for.

Respiration is one of those functions which immediately depends upon the sensorium, and proceeds from cerebral or spinal nerves; its ready participation in mental impressions is therefore to be expected. In ordinary respiration, the effort of expanding the chest is unconsciously excited by the uneasy sensations attending accumulation of blood in the lungs; but under the abstractive influence of grief, the sentient faculty, either impaired or diverted from internal impressions, suffers the accumulation to proceed to an unusual degree, and then a greater effort of inspiration is called for to obtain relief, which, followed by a fuller expiration, constitutes a sigh.

The irregularity of the pulse naturally follows interrupted respiration. The blood detained in the lungs now returns more slowly to the heart and retards the pulse; the next moment, hurried on by a deeper expiration, it presses forward to the heart and quickens the pulse.

Thus the ordinary and familiar effects of grief are all applicable upon the principle by which Dr. Whytt happily explained the cause of sighing; the organs of circulation and those of respiration being alike subject to the influence of mental impressions.

As for the extraordinary or anomalous symptoms that occasionally present themselves in certain individuals, these may be readily accounted for upon the principles formerly established in tracing out the laws of organic sympathy.

If any organ be more sensitive than the rest of the system, this will be most easily affected by a general cause. If the tone of its vessels be impaired by previous disease, or constitutionally weaker than that of others, the sympathetic change will be greater here than elsewhere; the tendency to sympathize increasing along with the irritability. Thus persons subject to liver disease often experience a relapse upon any distressing occurrence; and those of weak digestion are liable to a return of their stomach complaints, from any thing that occasions mental uneasiness.

In chronic diseases, the baneful effects of sorrow preying upon the mind, are well known to every medical man, who must often witness the inefficacy of the most skilful treatment, until some happy change of circumstances revives the spirits of his patient,

and restores the functions to their natural activity. Such is the salutary effect which attends the operation of the reverse of this passion, or,

JOY.

The moral tendency of joy is diametrically opposite to that of grief; while the latter creates an aversion to motion, and begets a state of listlessness or torpor, impairing the susceptibility of impression and impeding every function; the former, on the contrary, disposes to action, renders the body alive to every impression, and diffuses a general alacrity throughout the system.

Its physical influence cannot therefore be otherwise than salutary, at least when the emotion is moderate in degree. The circulation through the capillary vessels is facilitated by it, the blood is determined towards the brain and surface, a pleasing glow is excited over the skin, and every function which languished under the depressing influence of grief, becomes active again under the enlivening impression of joy.

These effects are not to be ascribed, any more than those of grief, merely to a change in the action of the heart. This organ, like every other, may participate in the general increase of activity; but such a change, if it occur, is only a secondary effect, and wholly inadequate to produce the other phenomena attending this emotion.

Joy, like every other mental feeling, first exerts its influence on the brain; where it operates as sensible impressions do on the organs of sense. These act upon the circulation of the sentient organ, and when of a pleasing nature, cause relaxation of vessels and determination to the part. Joy, which is analogous to pleasure, affects in the same way the circulation of the brain, and causes determination to the sensorium.

This determination, in conformity with the laws of vascular sympathy, extends also to other parts, and if the cause be sufficiently powerful, the whole system may feel its effects. These, when moderate in degree, are widely different from those of grief, the relaxation of vessels being unattended with any torpor and inactivity, but every way analogous to the effects produced on the surface by warmth and friction, or in the stomach by cordials, occasioning a more free and active circulation.

The pulse is alike accelerated by grateful impressions, whether they be corporeal or mental, from their influence on the heart; and the additional impulse thus given to the blood will tend to modify the general effect, and increase determination to the surface and brain.

The participation of the heart, however, appears to be only secondary, in joy as well as in grief. The returning blood is retarded in this one instance, and accelerated in the other, and the action of this organ varies accordingly. It is possible indeed that the mobility of the heart, varying with every change in the state of its coronary vessels, may experience a more direct participation. The coronary vessels being subject to the general laws of vascular sym-

pathy, and this organ being furnished in part with cerebral nerves, its vessels may, like others, participate in sensorial impressions, thereby acquire a more free circulation, and alter its mobility. But the isolated position of the heart, in conformity with the general phenomena of vascular sympathy, renders it likely to be exempt from such direct participation; while the effects of the passions present no changes in its action, but what are fully explicable by the augmented or diminished impulse of the returning blood.

That the capillaries are subject to nervous influence is manifest from the visible changes they perpetually undergo, both from corporeal and mental impressions; and the nature of these changes indicates the manner in which they are produced. Determination to the brain and surface is obviously the immediate effect resulting from joy as well as from grief; but the opposite nature of these emotions requires that they must act upon some intermediate principle common to both. Relaxing the capillary vessels appears to be the point wherein they coincide in their mode of operation, and the contrast between the emotions sufficiently accounts for the diversity of their effects, when moderate in degree; grief producing relaxation of vessels, through the torpor and abstraction it occasions; joy effecting the same change through its affinity to pleasure which disposes the organs to yield to grateful impressions, but without impairing their mobility.

When the emotions are experienced in an extreme degree, a striking coincidence, as before noticed, is observable in their effects, —both producing extraordinary congestion; and on the principle just stated it would appear, that the excess of joy is at least as dangerous, if not more so, than that of grief. In grief the vascular relaxation being accompanied by a general torpor, and no increase occurring in the force of circulation, the congestion in the sensorium is merely passive, and less liable to be excessive; whereas in joy the action of the heart being rather augmented than impaired, the yielding of the cerebral vessels will be simultaneous with increased circulation, and thereby threaten greater determination to the brain.

It does not appear foreign to the subject to notice here, that the subjection of the capillary vessels to nervous influence has of late received confirmation from the evidence of experiment. Mr. Brodie showed some time ago, that secretion may be suspended by the division of nerves. M. Le Gallois has lately shown that congestion in the minute vessels of the lungs results from the abstraction of nervous influence. And more recently still Dr. Philip has proved, by a series of experiments equally ingenious and important, that all involuntary organs are subject to the influence of nerves.

It is true, Dr. Philip explains, in a different manner, the way in which he conceives nerves to act in producing secretion and vascular action; but his arguments on this point are not equally conclusive.

Because secretion is suspended by division of nerves, although the secreting organ continues to receive a supply of blood, Dr.

Philip concludes that the failure of secretion does not proceed from the loss of vascular action, but from the want of nervous influence to effect the changes in the blood; which he conceives it to accomplish as a chemical agent.

Now supposing Dr. Philip's idea of secretion to be just, still the want of nervous influence to act as a chemical agent should only change the quality of the secreted fluid, and not totally suppress the quantity poured out on the secreting surface. This surely implies some change of action in the secreting vessels.

Whenever secreting vessels, from loss of power, become relaxed and over-distended, their excretory mouths, in all cases, as formerly shown, become constricted, and secretion suppressed; hence the most abundant supply of blood is unattended with secretion in fever and inflammation; and similar is the effect that results from division of nerves.

However plausible are Dr. Philip's speculations on the nature of nervous influence, and whatever benefit may accrue to science from searching after the cause of secretion and vascular action; still it must be admitted that their laws can only be deduced from observance of their phenomena; just as the laws of gravitation have been inferred from its phenomena, and not ascertained by attempts to discover its cause.

FEAR.

Grief and joy are easily defined, but there is an ambiguity in the effects of fear, partly arising out of the indiscriminate use of the word, and partly out of the fluctuating nature of the emotion.

The term fear, is in fact, applied to a variety of feelings; thus we are said to fear pain, to fear disaster, or to fear disgrace; each of which implies a distinct emotion: and the effects of fear, when the word is thus indiscriminately used, appear devoid of uniformity.

Its effects can only be uniform when the emotion which causes them is so; and it is therefore necessary to restrict its meaning at present to one distinct sense.

The least equivocal instance of fear is perhaps that which arises from the apprehension of personal danger. Similar also in its effects is that superstitious dread which the vulgar feel at the sight of what is supposed to be a supernatural appearance; and its influence is probably owing to the same cause, or a sense of personal danger, hence it is much increased by conscious guilt.

In this sense the effects of fear on the bodily frame are sufficiently definite and uniform; but still they are liable to be mistaken from the fluctuating nature of this emotion.

The mind, under the influence of fear, is seldom wholly divested of hope, and their effects may be easily confounded: thus fear, which takes away the strength, is sometimes erroneously supposed to increase the muscular energy; an effect which, if well considered, will be found to arise from the sudden renewal of hope.

In this restricted sense, the genuine effects of fear are first visible in the countenance; the blood flies from the face, the surface

becomes pale, or bedewed with a cold sweat, the strength fails, and the limbs, are affected with violent tremblings, which agitate the whole frame; the eyes become fixed, the breathing interrupted, and along with these an oppression is felt at the chest, and often violent pulsation at the heart.

The subsidence of these symptoms is followed by the occurrence of others of an opposite nature; which may either be regarded as the secondary effects of fear, or the immediate effects of hope, for cessation of the one is almost synonymous with renewal of the other. At all events, the symptoms in question invariably follow, and appear to be a necessary consequence of those which precede, and must therefore be taken in conjunction.

If the cause of fear be transient, at the moment of its removal, the blood rushes back to the face and surface: heat and redness arise with throbbing in the arteries, and increased action of the heart, and perhaps severe head-ache, with thirst and fever come on. Where organic weakness prevails, local disease may ensue, causing in one person a fit of gout, in another an attack of asthma, or other effects according to the constitution of different individuals.

Both these and the former symptoms evidently proceed from altered circulation; the paleness and shrinking in the first stage denoting want of blood in the capillary vessels; whereas the heat and redness indicate excessive determination to them in the second. The cause of this change is the point to be ascertained.

Reasoning as formerly, one of two causes must be assigned to account for want of blood in the capillaries of the brain and surface: either it is not sent to these parts as usual, or the vessels do not admit it as usual.

To say nothing of the inadequacy, before noticed, of diminished action in the heart to produce those violent tremblings which agitate the frame in fear, a strong sense of throbbing or beating at the chest is one of the first effects of this emotion; which shows that there is no diminution, but rather an augmentation of effort in the heart, and therefore the cause of emptiness must be sought for in the vessels themselves.

The natural effect of painful impressions, as formerly shown, is to excite contraction. There is indeed an apparent exception to this law, and that is, when the irritating cause is externally applied, relaxation being then the result. This, however, was shown to be really no exception, but a corollary necessarily arising out of the law. In this instance, the irritating cause is applied to a part not capable of contracting, and only causes relaxation, or suspends contraction in a part contiguous to it, which is so, by effacing or obscuring the impressions actually made on that part.

Thus it appears that the direct effect of pain is uniformly the same, or contraction; and analogous to the operation of pain is that of fear, or the apprehension of pain. As actual pain constricts the vessel in the sentient organ; so apprehended pain excites undue contraction in the capillaries of the brain, or mental organ.

The paleness and constriction thus appear to arise from an unusual effort of contraction expelling a portion of the blood previously contained in these vessels, and impeding the afflux of that coming to them; but without any diminution of action in the heart, and even while the heart is struggling to relieve itself from the additional load of blood now thrown upon it. For this change originating in the vessels of the brain, soon extends to other parts by vascular consent, especially to those immediately subject to sensorial influence, as the face, the surface, and organs of locomotion; and, in this way, violent throbbing at the chest arises from the superfluous blood now thrown upon the heart.

The secondary symptoms are easily accounted for on principles previously ascertained. Inordinate contraction is ever followed by proportionate relaxation; and the cause of fear subsiding, the constriction of vessels ceases, and the blood is sent back with additional force to the capillary system; for the relaxation succeeding is for a time accompanied with increased action of the heart, and hence the liability to convulsions, or inflammation of the brain in the second stage of this emotion, when excessive.

The operation of fear is thus explicable upon similar principles to the production of a febrile paroxysm, to which it bears, in many respects, a near affinity. This explanation of fever, however, it is to be observed, is materially different from that proposed by Hoffman and Cullen, the particular consideration of which would be foreign to our present subject.

ANGER.

This passion owes its influence on the bodily frame to the same general principle as other mental emotions, namely, change of feeling causing change of action in the cerebral vessels, but is sufficiently distinct from every other in its mode of operation.

Its effects accord, in many points, with those of grief, each causing increased determination of blood to the sensorium, but in both accompanied with certain peculiarities arising out of the different nature of these feelings.

Anger does not, like grief, produce a general torpor and insensibility, but awakens all the energies of the mind, and stimulates to exertion. When a sense of wrong fires with indignation, or the feeling of insult inflames with resentment, every muscle is instantly in readiness for action; and the fresh impulse thus given to the blood modifies the general effect, and augments determination to the brain and surface.

Consequently, flushing of the face, redness of the eyes, throbbing of the arteries, quick and strong pulse, with deep and laborious respiration, are the usual symptoms of anger.

When the emotion is extreme in degree, the coincidence of its effects with those of grief and joy, bespeaks the community of the principle on which they act; thus anger, like these, produces inflammation of the brain, mania, apoplexy, or sudden death. Or if organic weakness prevail in other parts, rupture of vessels, effu-

sion, congestion, or local inflammation may ensue, as explicable on the principles already pointed out.

A case related by Dr. Gregory of Edinburgh, in his Lectures, illustrates the distinct effects of the extremes of anger and grief in a manner so forcible and impressive as entitles it to insertion.

A woman, whose husband had been long absent at sea, and was supposed to be dead, had married a second; but the first husband returned and claimed his wife. She went back to him, and after they had lived some time happily together, she had a child by him. When her child was not many weeks old, and the mother's strength imperfectly restored after her confinement, she happened to quarrel with a female neighbour, and a scolding match ensued; when her antagonist insinuated that she had married her second husband, knowing the first to be alive. The indignation excited by this unjust charge brought on an attack of mania, and some time elapsed before she was restored to her mind. In the mean while her child, given in charge to another, was shamefully neglected; and when it was brought back to the mother, the shock occasioned by the change gave rise to an immediate attack of catalepsy. She now became perfectly unconscious of all around her, with her eyes fixed, her body motionless, her pulse and breathing scarcely perceptible. In this state, if a limb were raised or extended, the muscles becoming rigid, for a short time retained it so, until they relaxed again, and it gradually fell into its former position. The various means that were now employed to restore her, all proved fruitless, till it was at length deemed expedient to try what the sight of her child might do. It was brought to her, but she remained wholly regardless of it; until after repeated attempts it was placed directly before her face, when she appeared to become sensible of it, and shortly after followed it with her eyes, and smiled, and at last stretched out her arms to receive it. When given to her, however, she pressed it to her bosom with a convulsive force, so as to endanger its life, and its removal became necessary. Mania now instantly returned, and on subsiding was again succeeded by catalepsy, which alternated with each other for the space of three days, until she expired.

LOVE,

The last of the passions that requires to be considered, presents in its analysis, an epitome of all the rest; for so various are the feelings which it calls forth, and so intimate its union with the emotions it awakens, that they appear essential to its existence, and this combination forms one of its most striking peculiarities.

Taken in the more refined sense, love may be defined as—that attachment between the sexes which springs from a mutual sympathy, or congeniality of mind.

In another, and less exalted acceptation, this passion becomes degraded into a mere appetite; and its phenomena, in this light, are reducible to the laws of physical impressions. As far as the mind indeed is concerned, it affords a more remarkable illustration, than any other emotion, of the coincidence of effects between

corporeal and mental impressions in altering the state of circulation; pleasurable feelings operating in the same way on the capillary system, whether they act through the medium of the mind, or by their immediate impression on the sentient organ.

In the more refined sense of the word, love is calculated to awaken all the inherent sensibilities of our nature, and on this account diversity of effect is its most prominent feature; the actual symptoms it presents being explicable only by reference to the concomitant emotion. Thus joy, grief, fear or hope, anger or jealousy, may be called by turns into action, and one or other of these is always blended with love.

If sense of cold, constriction of vessels on the surface, with slight tremours and palpitation attend, these must be referred to a degree of anxiety or apprehension, such being the operation of fear.

If frequent sighing, and a sense of sinking or oppression at the chest arise; these must result from a disposition to despondency prevailing at the moment, these effects being referable to the operation of grief.

If sudden flushings of the face, hurried respiration, and irregular pulse occur, jealousy is probably called into action, such being the effects of anger.

If a pleasing glow over the surface, with slight acceleration of pulse, and a general increase of health and alacrity attend, these, as Darwin observes, denote the happy lover, being the effects of joy, or of hope, the anticipation of pleasure.

And thus the apparently contradictory effects may be explained, that result from this emotion, which presents, in fact, a compendium of all the passions.

In short, the various operation of mental impressions ultimately resolves itself into one general principle, or change of feeling, causing change of action in the cerebral vessels; while this change through vascular sympathy, extends to the whole system.

The reason why this general principle is so variously modified in particular cases, can derive no illustration from the vague and indefinite meaning of the technical terms stimulant and sedative, but is to be found, as already shown, in the peculiar nature of each separate emotion.

There yet remains to be considered a number of phenomena, which evidently belong to the class of mental impressions, and deriving their influence from the same source as the passions, are calculated to throw light reciprocally upon each other.

They are, for the most part, ascribed to sympathy, although there are many to which this term is wholly inapplicable.

MENTAL SYMPATHY.

Organic sympathy, which was formerly considered, causes one organ to participate in the impressions made upon another; the influence of mental sympathy, as it is called, is more extensive, and causes one person to participate in the feelings and emotions of another. Thus seeing another yawn, or hearing another cough, excites often a propensity to yawn or cough in the observer.

Although these effects may, in compliance with custom, be termed sympathetic, yet the word conveys no explanation of the manner in which they are produced; and there are, besides, many cases of similar effects, to which the term sympathy is inapplicable, as they are occasioned by inanimate objects. Thus the sight of blood causes some to faint; the sight of food causes the saliva to flow from the mouth of a dog.

Now these effects, and many others which are differently explained, are perfectly analogous to those called sympathetic, and without multiplying principles and inventing new causes, as the sympathetic tendency, the imitative principle, the power of imagination, and others, may all be shown to proceed from the same source.

The common principle to which they all apparently owe their origin is, the influence of attention unconsciously directed to particular parts, varying the degree of mental energy exerted upon, or the nervous influence sent to them, thereby altering their action, and producing a transient change of function.

How attention acts in directing the energy of the mind more strongly to particular parts, scarce needs explanation, as the very essence of this power consists in augmenting the consciousness of impressions received, and so increasing their influence. Thus we are unconscious of the ticking of a clock which is constantly in the room, or of the impression of the clothes we wear, unless our attention be particularly called to them, and then they become perceptible.

To appreciate justly the power of attention, it must be observed, that this, like other acts of the mind, may be voluntary or involuntary; the former being simply an intellectual operation, and devoid of perceptible emotion; the latter, the spontaneous impulse of feeling, and often beyond the control of the will.

But if this act of attention, which, is purely intellectual and voluntary, without perceptible emotion, be capable of augmenting the force of impressions, by increasing consciousness; far more is this the case when it results from feeling, and is involuntary, appertaining to the nature of a passion: as when the sight of a painful operation causes the spectator to shudder by turning his attention inward to his own feelings.

This then is the mode of attention, unconsciously and involuntarily excited, which is here alluded to, as fixing the energy of the mind more strongly on particular organs, thus varying the degree of nervous influence exerted upon them, and altering their action or condition.

In what manner the attention is unconsciously fixed upon particular parts is to be sought for in the nature of each individual instance, as seen in the following examples.

Hearing another cough vehemently and frequently, fixes the mind so strongly upon the feelings in the throat, as to produce at length a change of circulation, and occasion a sense of tickling and propensity to cough likewise. Seeing another yawn, unconsciously

fixes the attention so as to awaken a sense of weariness in the jaws, that disposes the observer to yawn also. Thinking of grateful food, on the same principle, alters the action of the secreting vessels, and increases the flow of saliva into the mouth. The flow of milk is increased in the same way, and often commences before the infant actually touches the breast of the mother. A blush may be excited by looking stedfastly and suspectingly in a person's face. The attention thus strongly directed to the feelings of the face, alters the action of its vessels, and produces the change in question. The senses of hunger and thirst may be brought on or accelerated by thinking of them; and the desire of evacuating the bladder or rectum, by circumstances accidentally directing the attention to feelings otherwise too slight to have been noticed. Bodily fatigue comes on much sooner when the sameness and dreariness of the road we travel continually reminds us of the distance we have already gone, and awakens a sense of the disparity between our strength and the effort still to be made. The sense of drowsiness, or mental weariness, is liable to be brought on in the same way by the prospect of a long story, and the anticipation of the fatiguing effort required to listen to it. In short, it is needless to multiply instances which will spontaneously occur to every one's recollection.

The truth of the principle, that these and similar phenomena depend upon the influence of increased attention to particular feelings thus augmenting their force, is not less evident in the converse of this proposition, or in the operation of causes which divert the attention from these feelings, and thus diminish or suspend their influence. A few instances will serve to illustrate this point.

Every one must have experienced how much uneasy sensations are alleviated by any thing that engages the mind and withdraws the attention. Head-ache and tooth-ache have been often removed by the receipt of agreeable news or the welcome arrival of an unexpected friend. The chess board has been found to alleviate the pains of gout; and an attack of spasmodic asthma has been suspended by strongly engaging the attention. Sudden alarm has been known to stop the paroxysm of an ague, and check the operation of an emetic. The practice of taking away the hiccough, or preventing a person from sneezing, by strongly fixing the attention, is familiar to every one; and let a cough be ever so troublesome it is commonly suspended while we are eating, the impression in the mouth and fauces suspending the influence of that in the larynx. The beneficial effect of sucking lozenges appears referable to their power of abstracting the attention from one impression by substituting another.

Thus another class of phenomena resolves itself in the same way as those before enumerated; and like the effects ascribed to sympathy and imitation, may be accounted for without multiplying causes, or resorting to the invention of more principles.

The extensive influence which the mind exerts over the involuntary functions, is conspicuous in them all; and considering each

organ in the animal frame as forming part of a sentient being, its participation in mental impressions, in all cases, ultimately proceeds from different modifications of one general principle, or change of feeling causing change of action.

ART. VI.—*Life and Writings of James Hogg.*

NOTHING is so destructive of that spirit of adventure, which leads the mind into new and unexplored regions of intellect, as the pride of learning, which considers its own attainments as the limits of human knowledge, and looks down from its fancied elevation on all those who have not been taught to prate, in trim phrase, of the philosophical creed that happens to be in fashion, or of certain books written in languages that have ceased to be spoken for many centuries. To an acquaintance with them every one must be trained, and on them his opinions must be formed, or he can hardly expect to be admitted into good society any more than he should if his coat were not in fashion. Nothing is so rare as originality of genius; and, according to the modes of education that have long prevailed, and are still in use, in our public institutions, the little that exists is in danger of being extinguished in its very dawning. Every boy is required to perform the same tasks, and in the same manner, without the slightest regard to the original bent of the mind; and if, unfortunately, he is either unfit or disinclined, he must be breeched into the knowledge of what he justly perhaps considers useless, or sink into a listless lethargy, and be degraded in his own eyes, and in those of his fellows, as an incorrigible dunce. Wo to the poor child whose fancy wanders to the clear waters where the little fishes twinkle in his mental vision like beams of light, in freedom and in beauty, or to the heathery slope where his soul dances to the melody of the lark overhead; he will soon be recalled from the dream of delight, in bitterness and tears, to the hated volume from which he is doomed to hear one dull sentence rung in his ears a hundred times. By this mode of treatment, the soul is stunted, and prevented from putting forth its shoots and blossoms in the uncontrolled energy of nature; and rather resembles a tree which creeps along a garden wall, than the magnificent oak that has not been profaned by the axe of the woodman. Men bred under such discipline, are precisely what education has made them. They passively receive what is poured into their minds, and give it out again unchanged by meditation and reflection; or, if any change has taken place, it is a weakening and dilution. Their intellectual range is confined to the narrow circle that has been trode on by the men of many generations; yet they fold the academic stole around their infirmities, and pace it with a degree of self importance that is quite ridiculous. By their own unaided strength, they would never have raised themselves above the level of hewers of wood, and drawers of water; and those unascended steepes where alone true science is to be found, have never once entered their minds. Yet their vanity is harmless, and might be tolerated, if they did not imagine themselves equal to the great

poets of antiquity; because they understand the structure of their verse, and have sometimes feloniously dared to substitute their own worthless dross for their fine gold; or deem themselves the rivals of the father of Greek philosophy, because they have learned from him to construct a syllogism. It is not such men, that, by the ingenuity and the splendour of their inventions, shed a lustre on our common nature or by the originality of their imaginations, add to the stock of immortal poetry. Bacon looked through the philosophy of his age only to discover its utter worthlessness, and to substitute something better in its place; and the gigantic genius of Shakespeare was never subjected to the shackles of the schools.

It is not our purpose to lament that Mr. Hogg was denied the advantages of a school education, which he could not have enjoyed but at such a risk, but to trace the progress of his genius in what we conceive to be the most favourable situation for its development. It was his high privilege, that even in boyhood, his eye was familiar with the elements of poetry;—that even then, his soul soared to heaven on the wing of the eagle, and grew giddy over the cataract, and drank inspiration in the breezes of the hill, and worshipped nature on her mountain throne;—that the first music to which he listened was the sound of the brooks, and the winds, and the thunders, with which he held mysterious communings;—that he was nursed in the solitude of the deep glens, and amid the sublime drapery of the mists and the clouds, where nature and superstition alike dispose the mind to lofty musings;—and that he was left undisturbed to the wildness and the grandeur of his own imaginations, where every object administered to his favourite propensities, and where he moulded each into a thousand combinations that never existed but in his own mind. He was in truth a student of nature, before he was aware of her influences, or could give utterance to his feelings in language; and fortune placed him in a situation where she was unveiled to his eye in all her infinitude and omnipotence.

But, fully to understand the circumstances that kindled his genius into activity, and developed the extraordinary powers of his mind, it will be necessary to make a few remarks on the features of the country where he was born, and the moral and intellectual character of the people among whom he passed his early days. The glens and the mountains of Etterick and Yarrow combine almost all the soft beauty and wild sublimity that Highland scenery exhibits. In the lower district of Yarrow, that lovely stream winds among hills of no great height, gently swelling, and green to the summits; in some places finely wooded, but generally naked, and well suited to the pasture of flocks. This is their common character, but some miles from the mouth of the valley, dark heathy mountains are seen towering to a considerable height above the surrounding hills, and give an interesting variety to the scene. Towards the head, the glen widens, and embosoms St. Mary's Loch, and the Loch of the Lowes; and above these sweet lakes, terminates in a wild mountain-pass, that divides it from Moffatdale. In the loftiest and most rugged

ed regions of this pass, the Grey-Mare's Tail, a waterfall 300 feet in perpendicular height, dashes and foams over stupendous rocks. This celebrated fall is formed by a stream that flows from Loch-Skene, a dark mountain-lake about a mile above it, surrounded by inaccessible heights on all sides save one, and that is strewn by a thousand black heathery hillocks of the most grotesque and irregular forms. This place is so solitary, that the eagle has built her nest in an islet of the lake for ages, and is overhung by the highest mountains in the south of Scotland. The character of Etterick is similar to that of Yarrow, except, perhaps, that its tints are softer and more mellow, and it is destitute of lakes. These valleys, so celebrated in Border legend and song, are skirted by hills, extending many miles on both sides, and, as there is no great road through them, the people have long lived shut out from the rest of mankind, in a state of pastoral simplicity and virtuous seclusion, alike remote from the vices of boorish rusticity, and fawning servility. Among the wild mountains at the head of Etterick and Yarrow, the sturdy champions of the Covenant found an asylum when they were chased like wild beasts, by a relentless persecution, from every other part of the country. Their preachers held their conventicles in the most sequestered glens, and made many converts, from whom a number of the present race are descended; but, while they cherish the memory of these glorious men, and as well they may, retain all the noble-mindedness that arises from the consciousness of an illustrious ancestry, their moral features have lost much of the sternness of their fathers, and are softened down into the gentler virtues of more peaceful times; yet, if we were asked what people of Britain had suffered least from the evil consequences of excessive refinement, we should answer, without hesitation, the inhabitants of Etterick and Yarrow. In these interesting valleys, there is hardly a cottage that has not its legend, or a cleugh that is not famed for some act of romantic chivalry, or tenanted by some supernatural being, or sanctified by the blood of some martyr. In such a country, full of chastened beauty, and dark sublimity, and visionary agency, and glorious recollections, it was the good fortune of Hogg to be born, and to spend the greater part of his life.

His mother Margaret Laidlaw, was, like himself, a self-taught genius. Her mother had died while she was yet young; but being the eldest of several children, and her father far from wealthy, she was kept at home to superintend the household affairs, and assist in bringing up her younger brothers and sisters, during those years when the children of the Scottish peasantry, even the poorest, are sent to school; and they at the proper age enjoyed the usual advantages. About the age of twelve or thirteen she began to feel her inferiority to them; and on the Sabbath, her only day of rest, she used to wander out alone to a solitary hill side, with a Bible under her arm, and, humbled by a sense of her ignorance, to throw herself down on the heath, and water the page with bitter tears. By the ardour of her zeal, she soon accomplished the object of her dearest wishes, and supplied the deficiencies of her education.

The race of wandering minstrels was not then extinct in her native glens; and from the recitations of one of them, an old man of ninety, she stored her memory with many thousand lines of the old Border ballad, which he alone knew. To his knowledge she succeeded; and there is reason to fear that much of it died with her.

This woman, herself of an imaginative and enthusiastic mind, soon discovered in her son James a kindred spirit, and laboured in its cultivation with an earnestness greatly honourable to her, and to which, perhaps, the world is indebted for the *Queen's Wake*. In the remote and solitary glens of these mountain districts, the cottages of the shepherds are often situated at great distances from other dwellings, and their tenants pass the winter months with no other society than that of their own family. Nothing can be conceived humbler in the way of human habitations than these cottages then were; yet they were frequently lighted by a brilliancy of imagination, and cheered by a gentleness of affection, and an enthusiasm of feeling, that Grecian sofas and gilded canopies cannot confer. In a sequestered mode of life, where the affections are limited in their range, they acquire a strength greater in proportion as the sphere of their action is narrowed; and imagination is most vigorous when it has to work on a small number of simple ideas.—Never was a family more closely linked together than the children of this admirable woman, and never was a mind of great original power more strenuously exerted in the formation of the heart and the development of the understanding. She was in the daily habit of reading to them from the sacred volumes such passages as she thought most likely to interest their minds and improve their moral feelings; and this she diversified by animated recitations from the *Border Ballad*, something between chant and song; and she brought superstition to her aid, held them in breathless silence and fearful, though pleasing, agitation, by stories of ghosts, and fairies, and brownies, and witches, and dead lights,—or she thrilled their hearts and wet their cheeks by an account of the death of some young shepherd who had perished, not far from his own dwelling, amid the mountain snows.

James enjoyed even fewer of the advantages of education than his brothers, for he never attended school above three months; and though his mother taught him to read, his whole stock of literature, till he was 20 years of age, consisted in the knowledge of his Bible, *Hervey's Meditations*, *The Gentle Shepherd*, an occasional number of the *Scots Magazine*, and a large store of oral poetry; but these he knew thoroughly, and still retains; and it may be questioned if any man alive is more thoroughly acquainted with the sacred scriptures than himself. The searching eye of a mother soon marked his talent for versification, and she used to say to him, 'Jamie, my man, gang ben the house and make me a sang,' while she proposed a subject for his muse. How he succeeded in these boyish efforts, we have not learned, yet the effects of such a training, on such a mind, may be easily conceived. It fanned the spark of poetry that nature had implanted in his bosom into a flame, that

neither poverty, nor misfortune, nor neglect, nor even the sneer of the polished critic, could ever extinguish or diminish.

But he was soon deprived of the fostering cares of one of the kindest of mothers, and the most original of women; for his parents were then struggling with worldly difficulties, in consequence of a misadventure in sheep-farming, and were obliged to send him to service when he was little above seven years of age; and his boyhood and youth were spent in the solitude of the mountains, with no other moral guardian than the good principles which they had instilled into his mind, and his own reflections, and no other intellectual guide than nature. He grew up to manhood in a state of servitude, but in him it produced no degradation, and could not repress the noble aspirations of a generous mind, conscious of its own value, leaning with confidence on its resources, and feeling itself equal to great undertakings. The untowardness of his circumstances did not injure the strong independence of a spirit that seemed to rise in proportion to the weights that pressed upon it, and he enjoyed advantages which he could not have had in any other situation. While his flocks were wandering on the summits of the mountains, or in the bosom of a sequestered glen, he had the opportunity of looking on nature, freed from the mists of prejudice, or the pedantry of books, where she is seldom seen in her original forms and natives hues. It was not with him, as is too often the case, the study of poetry that led him to the study of nature; it was nature herself, green, and fresh, and vernal, that inspired him with a passionate admiration of her untouched grandeur, and an ambition of singing her glories; and he would have been a poet if no one had ever existed before him. All the various shows of the visible universe, and all the doings of the elements were familiar to his imagination, which reflected on them its own lights, and called into existence a creation of its own, of such beauty and magnificence as never appeared but in the eye of inspiration. In such a situation, all his dreams were poetry, and we have often heard him describe mountain phenomena with such fidelity, and beauty, and shadowy grandeur, as to convince us, that, as a landscape painter, he would have had no rival. All his organs, indeed, are so acute, and all his perceptions of such uncommon vividness, and leave such complete pictures, that we believe were he to apply to art, his paintings in truth and originality of conception, at least, would be equal to his poetry. These circumstances have rendered him, above all men, the poet of the mountains, which he never approaches but his imagination takes wing, and, like the eagle, wheels and soars with a magnificence and loftiness of range in her native element.

The principal object of this essay is to unfold the circumstances that assisted nature in the formation of Mr. Hogg's mind. These were chiefly the legendary tales and superstitions of his country, and the wildness and solitude of its scenery, and the impression of one or other of them is stamped on almost every line of poetry he has written. The *Border Ballad*, which is impetuous and daring,

and as little subject to rule as the men whose achievements it celebrates, was peculiarly adapted to engage the young fancy of such a man. Nature had richly gifted his mind, and accident and education were alike favourable to the development of its peculiar faculties; nor if Scotland had been searched for the purpose, would it have been possible to find a woman better qualified than his mother to discover the early sparks of his genius, and to kindle them into an unquenchable flame. After the death of the old man above mentioned, she became the great repository of the Border ballad, being able to recite almost every line that is to be found in the Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border, and many others, which were by her death lost to the world. She possessed a soul of great sensibility, and a voice ever in unison with its movements; and in her recitations, which resembled the enthusiasm of immediate inspiration, rather than the repetition of the ideas of others, she taught the tone of the piece in all its variety of rapidity and grandeur. These rude lays of our forefathers contain the hardy adventures and constant vicissitudes of men who spent their lives amid the alarms and dangers of a predatory warfare;—their affluence and spoliation,—their valour in making and repelling an attack,—their love of glory, and contempt of death,—the song of the triumph, and the dirge of the slain,—and to each of these she gave an appropriate emphasis and action, rising into the wildness of possession, or melting into an overpowering tenderness. Such were the effects of her manner, that when her son saw these poems printed, of which her recitations had delighted him so much, he could not believe they were the same. His mind was early imbued with these ballads; on them his taste was formed; and the ‘Mountain Bard’ is a professed imitation of them.

In this memoir of the progress of the genius of the poet, rather than the life of the man, it would be unpardonable not to mention the family of Mr. Laidlaw of Blackhouse. Here he was received rather as a son at the house of his father, than a servant; yet this respectable man is mentioned, not so much on account of the kindness Hogg received under his roof, as the means he there enjoyed of cultivating his mind, and improving his poetical talent. Mr. Laidlaw himself was an intelligent and a well informed man, and possessed a good library for his situation, which was always at Mr. Hogg’s command, and it was then that he may be said to have commenced reading. He never speaks of this respectable man but as a father; but it was the friendship that he formed with his son, Mr. William Laidlaw, that must make this change in his situation be remembered as an era in his life. Before this period, he had had some acquaintances, but he had never till now enjoyed a friend out of his own family. The young man who was now his associate, was a kindred spirit; like himself, an unspoiled pupil of nature, who, to a vigorous imagination, added an acute judgment, and soon discovered the genius of the future poet, through the ungainly exterior that concealed it. With a knowledge of character almost intuitive, he saw, under the unpretending simplicity of the shepherd, a

mind of strong originality, and capable of extraordinary things. He admired him to enthusiasm, and roused him to a sense of his own importance, cheering him in his poetical attempts, and zealously propagating his fame; and though many of those to whom he showed his verses received them with indifference or condemnation, he continued unshaken in his judgment of the powers of his friend.

Some time after the period of which we have been speaking, Mr. Scott and Mr. Leyden began to make their collections for the *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*. They had heard of Mr. Laidlaw as a man likely to assist them in the object of their search. To him they applied, and by him Hogg was introduced to Mr. Scott. He was at first rather surprised to hear that the poems to which he had been accustomed to listen with such delight from his infancy, and which he supposed were little known out of his own glens, were sought after with such avidity by the learned and the ingenious; yet he was proud to comply with the requisition, and wrote out several ballads for insertion in that work. Some of his own poetry was shown to Mr. Scott, who approved of it. This was a sanction from which there was no appeal, and the most infidel of his acquaintances among the farmers and shepherds now began to discover merit in those productions which had lately been the subject of their ridicule. His fame now began to spread, and he was spoken of in Edinburgh and other places as a surprising man for his opportunities. At the first meeting between him and Mr. Scott, that gentleman, after spending some hours in his company, declared that he had never met a man of more originality of genius, and henceforth became his zealous friend. From the time he began to write poetry, he had never doubted of his ultimate success. He felt within him the stirrings of inspiration so strong, that he could not doubt of his vocation. Yet the countenance of such a man was a triumph to him and his friend, for which they had hardly dared to hope. All that he now wanted was a little mechanical skill, and he applied to his beloved art with the natural warmth of his temperament, kindled into enthusiasm by applause so highly valued, and was naturally enough led to the imitation of the Border ballad.

It was not till he was about twenty-two years of age that he composed much poetry. This was in 1793, and thirteen years elapsed before he published his *Mountain Bard*. In the intermediate space, he published a small volume in as peculiar circumstances as poet was ever placed. He had been sent to Edinburgh with a flock of sheep for sale. He accidentally arrived two days before the market, and not knowing how to employ himself, he recollected that he had some poems, and was seized with a strong desire of seeing them in print. He hired a small lodging in a garret story, and wrote out, not the best of his compositions, but such as he could remember. He left them with an obscure printer, and heard no more of them till some of the copies were sent to him, with an account of the expenses of printing. To his mortification, they were inaccurately printed, yet, with all their faults, some of them found their way into the *Magazines* of the day. Though there is not a line in this

volume which its author now thinks worthy of being preserved, yet he then thought this notice the summit of human fame.

We now come to consider the 'Mountain Bard.' And if the success of an imitation depend on its likeness to its prototype, we should be disposed to pronounce the imitations in this volume superior to the more polished ones in the *Border Minstrelsy*. There is in these early essays of Mr. Hogg's genius, much of the spirit and energy, as well as the rudeness that characterize the ancient ballad. He seems to have caught a fold of the mantle of the old minstrels, and to have struck the very harp on which they played to the same tones of wildness and enthusiasm. Yet perhaps they do not resemble them more in any thing than in a true doric simplicity, both of thought and expression; and though their simplicity often degenerates into prose, and their familiarity into vulgarity, they contain many touches and some passages which the author has hardly yet surpassed in his happiest moments; and are never uninteresting,—the mortal sin of poetry. Few people open the volume without the desire of going through it, and it is impossible to read it through without discovering strong proofs of an original and poetical mind.—But we must postpone till next Number our further remarks on this interesting volume, and on the astonishing progress that the author has, since its appearance, attained in power of expression and poetical reputation.

ART. VII.—*Death on the Pale Horse.*

[From Ackerman's Repository.]

We deem no apology requisite for the introduction of this foreign notice of a celebrated painting by our illustrious countryman, especially where there is no opportunity of seeing the picture; in such a case, it seems to be some satisfaction to be enabled to form an idea, however general, of its more prominent features.

ED.

MR. West's painting of *Death on the Pale Horse*, or the opening of the first five seals, has at length been exhibited. The venerable president having had this subject under his consideration for a number of years, and having so far back as the year 1800 executed a sketch from it, which was much admired both here and on the continent, the utmost curiosity was excited among the lovers of the fine arts for the appearance of a work on which so much pains were known to have been taken. This curiosity is at length gratified; the work is now before the public, whose province it is to pass judgment on its merits.

On comparing the original sketch with the present picture, a considerable variation will be found. The subject our readers are aware is taken from the opening of the seals in the sixth chapter of the *Revelations*. In the sketch there is no actual development of that part of the divine mystery in the second seal, at least it is not touched in the detailed manner in which we find it in the large picture. Mr. West has, in his matured conception of the subject, filled up by actual representation many parts which imagination was intended to supply in his first outline of the composition. In this picture he depicts *Death* exercising his delegated power over the fourth part of the earth: 'to kill with sword, and with hunger, and with

death, and with the beasts of the earth.' His next character is the *Rider on the White Horse*, whom, as representing the Gospel, he has invested with an exterior of 'purity, excellence, and dignity,' such as we expect to find in the Messiah. The *Rider on the Red Horse* is represented simply as a warrior, armed with 'the great sword.' The *Rider on the Black Horse* appears with those balances in his hands, in which mankind were 'weighed and found wanting;' and Despair and Famine precede him in his course. The fore-ground is formed of a domestic group belonging to that class of society which is erroneously supposed free from the ordinary casualties of life. In the right-hand division of the picture, 'the anarchy of the combats of the men with the beasts of the earth' is represented, as well as the horrors of a tempest, which convulses the firmament. 'The principle of destruction,' says the artist, 'is exemplified through every part of the subject: the audacious eagle is seen pouncing on the heron; and near the dead serpent on the fore-ground, the affectionate dove deplores its mate that has just expired.'

From such materials the reader must be at once prepared to see, that the aim of the artist was a delineation upon canvas 'of the terrible sublime,' as he describes it, 'in all its various modifications, until lost in the opposite extremes of pity and horror.' The attempt to execute and arrange complicated masses of figures, so as to excite in the mind associations of so high and varied an order, has ever proved an arduous, and seldom a successful, task. The noble inspiration of poetry has sometimes reached this height, and operated at will upon the passions of the soul: but in painting, the medium of communication is different; a union of many rare qualities is requisite to effect even a part of this purpose, and in the ablest hands the markings of vehement passion and sublime character have been either overcharged, and consequently repulsive, or feeble, and therefore indistinct. It is due, however, to our venerable president to say, that he has never been more eminently successful on any subject in the whole course of his long and arduous professional life, than he has both in the composition and execution of this picture. All that is full of horror and of the terrible in the causes which work on the springs of the human mind, may be said to be here depicted in the figure of *Death on the Pale Horse*. 'The dreadful expression of the countenance, the hideously inflamed features, the ghastly and convulsive stare, the inextinguishable rage, present a swollen and awful combination of expression, which at once appals the mind, and consigns it to those sensations of terror and awe, which it is the highest aim of the artist to express, and which it required the most perfect inspiration to have produced. The same vigorous and characteristic expression which belongs to the rider is also applicable to the horse, whose head is in the finest style of vehement and furious character; the pestilential breath is admirably emitted, and the frantic and supernatural exertion of the animal is wonderfully portrayed. All the desolating objects and elements which diffuse death and misery through the world, follow

in the train of the principal figure, actively engaged in fulfilling the object of their mission. The figure representing Famine in the fore-ground is a great effort of the artist; and the shadows which the crouched attitude throws on the extremities of this shrivelled and transparent object, display a power of execution which we could hardly have expected even from Mr. West at this late stage of his meritorious life. The severer parts of the episode are beautifully softened down by the tender and interesting objects of humanity, who lie scattered, expired and expiring under the feet of the horse. It would exceed our limits to give a detailed description of the whole of the apocalyptical characters described in this great picture; no description can indeed convey the moral force which must be felt from a view of the work itself. All the parts of the work correspond with the conception and execution of the principal figure which we have described; and though some critical observations may apply to a dimness of colouring and indistinct pencilling in some of the subordinate details of the picture, yet they are of so trivial a nature, and so little affect the general character of the work, that we think it would be affectation to single them out for particular observation.

We cannot conclude these observations without congratulating the President of the Royal Academy on the execution of this work, at a time of life long past that period at which society has a claim upon those who are destined to adorn it, and enlarge its enjoyments, by the exercise of those talents with which Providence has blessed them.

ART. VIII.—*A Biographical account of Thaddeus Kosciusko, General and Commander in Chief of the National Polish Army.*

“Cernit omnia Deus vindex.”—Seneca.

[Partly from particulars given in the London Monthly Magazine, with some additional facts respecting his connexion with America.]

THE memory of this renowned patriot and commander ought not to pass down the stream of time unheeded and unregarded: his devotion to the cause of liberty in both hemispheres,—his exploits, will be recorded by the pen of the historian, and while his name continues for ages to sound harshly in the ears of the despot, he will find the noblest of all monuments in the bosoms and recollections of every freeman within the pale of the civilized portion of the globe.

Thaddeus Kosciusko was born in Poland, about the year 1752. Descended from a family, at once noble and poor, from his earliest youth he was dedicated to the profession of arms. Being accordingly sent to Warsaw, at a precocious age he made rapid advances in the study of the art of war, and early obtained a commission in the service of ‘The King and Republic of Poland’ as it was then called.

In the course of a few years more, we find this young officer in France, whither he had repaired for the purpose of further military instruction; and, on his return to his native country, he was immediately advanced to a higher rank in the Polish Army, having found means to obtain the protection, not only of the King, but

also of one of the chief nobles, who maintained a powerful ascendancy both in the diet and in public affairs.

But, being young and ambitious, he at length determined to repair to the Trans-atlantic Continent for the express purpose of aiding and supporting the American Cause. As for himself, he already appertained to the party that opposed the encroachments of Russia, and languished for the independence of their native country; and, in addition to feelings of this kind, there is something fascinating in the very sound of liberty to a young, ardent, and ingenuous mind. On this occasion, Kosciusko prevailed on a lady of noble birth, and distinguished family, to unite her fate to his, and to accompany him to the New World: but these romantic lovers were pursued, overtaken, and separated for many long years, by the interposition of paternal authority: for it was then a species of treason in that country, for one of the poor nobles to aspire to the hand of a daughter of a great and a powerful *magnat*. At this period, too, the bulk of the Polish nation actually consisted of vassals, literally *adscripti glebæ*; and, as in Russia, at the absolute disposal of the aristocracy.

After a variety of adventures, Captain Kosciusko at length landed in America, and instantly repaired to the head quarters of General Washington, by whom he was handsomely received. He had arrived, indeed, at a fortunate moment; for hostilities had but recently commenced, and the defenders of liberty, although numerous, active, and resolute, were at the same time raw, ignorant, undisciplined, and unacquainted with every thing that appertains to the art of war. To such an army,—if army it could then be called,—this young and spirited Pole became a treasure*. He was present at many engagements during the war, in all of which he conducted himself with great gallantry; and was admitted into the

* In Colonel Wilkinson's (deputy adjutant general of the northern division of the army) despatches to major general Gates, dated Ticonderoga, May, 1777, we find the following mention made of the subject of this memoir 'Colonel Kosciusko is modest in the extreme.' And, sometime after, colonel Wilkinson, regretting the departure of Kosciusko, thus anxiously expresses a wish for his return:—'for God's sake let Kosciusko come back as soon as possible, with proper authority.'

General Wilkinson's Memoirs.

At page 200, Vol. I. of the same work, from which the above extracts are derived, we find the following:

'The ill-fated Thaddeus Kosciusko was at that time our chief engineer, and for months had been the companion of my blanket: he selected a position for a fortified camp, about four miles below Fort Edward, at Moses's creek, where the waters of the Hudson River are separated by an island: the troops were now organized into divisions, and occupied the opposite sides of the river; ground was broken on the island for a battery to command the pass: the position had been selected because the approximation of the hills to the river, formed a defile susceptible of defence against a superior force.'

Page 232—'The American army, about 6000 strong, moved to Stillwater, 8th September, 1777. The ground at this place was examined, a line for intrenchments traced, *a fatigue of 1000 men put to work under Colonel Kosciusko*, and the following order was issued on the 10th—"Whether it may be immediately necessary to engage the enemy on this ground, or to push them into Canada, the general has the firmest opinion that both officers and soldiers will be zealous in the execution of his commands."'

family of General Washington, as an officer appertaining to his suite. It is gratifying to remark the association of these great men of kindred minds, in a common cause; the one, afterwards establishing the triumph of liberal principles, for which he contended, the other a like assertor of his country's freedom, treading in the footsteps of his patron and friend. The circumstance reflects much credit on the discernment of Washington, and is peculiarly interesting, from the subsequent celebrity which the gallant Kosciusko attained. It was, while enjoying the confidence of our great commander, that Colonel Kosciusko acquired the friendship of the celebrated Marquis de la Fayette; he was much esteemed by the Count de Rochambeau, who afterwards became a marshal of France; and, in short, he appears, by his skill, his bravery, and his amiable manners, to have conciliated the regard, not only of the American officers, but also of the numerous body of French, and other foreigners, then in their service.

At length, when peace arrived, he determined to return to Europe. Having landed in France, he immediately proceeded to Poland, where his love and patriotism were both excited by some obscure rumours that had recently reached his ears. On his arrival at Warsaw, it was reported to him that his intended bride was married, and he found the Poles longing for an opportunity to shake off the yoke of Russia, and to rid themselves of grievances experienced since the first partition of Poland.

He now betook himself to a secluded and retired life, partly to indulge his melancholy, and partly to avoid suspicion; for the generals of the Empress Catharine were become jealous of all popular characters, and the fame of Kosciusko had already reverberated from the shores of the Atlantic, and began to be pronounced with rapture by a nation which panted for a liberator!

At length an opportunity of advancement presented itself, and he instantly left his retreat. A new diet actuated by a spirit of national independence, was anxious to lessen the influence of foreigners, in Poland; and, to effect this, wished to encourage such of the natives as displayed a love of country, united with a knowledge of the art of war. As no Pole was more prominent in respect to both qualifications, Kosciusko was now promoted to the rank of major-general.

But this very assembly, overawed by the presence of foreign troops, and menaced by a Russian Envoy, was obliged, reluctantly and indignantly, to ratify the bondage of their country by a second partition of Poland. The pretext for this,—and when is arbitrary power deficient in pretext?—was the new constitution of 1791, by which the vassallage of the peasants was to be mitigated. In the year 1794, Baron d'Ingelstrohm, acting with the authority of a master, demanded the restoration of the servile code of 1772, and actually ordered every vestige of that of 1791 to be erased from the records of the senate. Humiliating compliance only increased the extent of Russian interference, and the Empress now required that the national army should be reduced to 16,000 men, a body in-

sufficient to maintain the independence of Poland Proper, under her new limits. This imperious demand produced a new civil war in Poland, the event of which was for some time uncertain.

Meanwhile, Kosciusko had already taken the field, in support of the new constitution; for he served as general of division under Count Poniatowski. During a whole campaign, he distinguished himself, as usual, by an union of courage and good conduct. The King, who had been placed on the throne for the express purpose of serving the interests of Russia, was an accomplished scholar, but weak, vacillating, and fickle. The menaces of the Court of St. Petersburg prevailed, and, instead of taking the field in person, and placing himself at the head of his countrymen, he soon proved himself unworthy of that crown which was beset by the legions and intrigues of Russia. On learning the fatal intelligence of this servile compliance, General Kosciusko resigned his commission, and retired to Germany.

But new events speedily fixed his attention once more on his native country, now likely again to become a theatre of war and bloodshed, of ruin and desolation. The politicians of Europe waited for the effects likely to be produced, by the new and insolent order for disbanding the troops; and it was generally supposed, that the Poles would be once more obliged to submit. But they were mistaken, for Madalinski refused to obey an illegal command; on the contrary, hastily summoning all the troops within the extent of his jurisdiction, he passed the Vistula, and attacked a body of Prussians: for the conquest was *tripartite*, and the courts of Vienna and Berlin were nearly as active in respect to the partition, although not quite so ferocious as the Russians themselves.

No sooner had the news of this insurrection been communicated to Kosciusko, who still kept up a constant intercourse with the insurgents, than he suddenly quitted his retreat at Leipsic, where he had taken refuge, and advanced rapidly, with several officers in his suite, to the frontiers. Having there learned the precise state of affairs, he instantly entered Poland, and soon received a deputation from a body of respectable Poles, who had secretly assembled at Warsaw, and chosen him generalissimo. Accompanied by a chosen band, in 1794 he made a sudden irruption into the palatinate of Cracovia, in which but few of the enemy had as yet appeared; and, entering the capital at the precise moment when a feeble garrison had been driven out, he instantly replaced it in its former station, and obliged the victors, in their turn, to betake themselves to flight.

He now published a *formula*, which was constantly designated in Poland, by the term of an 'An act of Insurrection;' and, having fallen in with Madalinski, who had been obliged to fly before a superior corps of Russians, they immediately turned on the pursuers; and, with a body of light and undisciplined troops, actually conquered a superior number of veterans: but the latter only fought for pay and booty; the former were actuated by far different motives—patriotism, indignation, and revenge!

Meanwhile the Warsovians, actuated by similar principles, and inflamed still more by the presence, the rapacity, the cruelty, and the injustice of a foreign force, determined on joining in the insurrection. No sooner did intelligence of this disposition arrive in the Polish camp, by means of numerous emissaries whom the love of country had attached to the common cause, than Kosciusko determined to repair thither. He accordingly set out at the head of a motley assemblage, incompletely armed, and but badly disciplined, with the view of giving battle to the finest troops in Europe, all of whom were provided with muskets and bayonets; while most had seen service, either in the wars of Poland or of Turkey; and, in addition to a regular supply of provisions, they possessed a formidable train of artillery.

While in full march towards the capital, this raw and inexperienced body of recruits fell in with a large detachment of Russians; but Kosciusko was at their head, and, disdaining the thought of retreat, they commenced action, making the onset with such dreadful impetuosity, that the invaders, unable to withstand the shock, broke and fled in all directions. On learning the happy news, the citizens of Warsaw, faithful to their vows, instantly flew to arms; and the Russian garrison, endangered by this defeat of their countrymen, were under the necessity of retreating.

The gallant Pole, on entering Warsaw, found king Stanislaus Augustus, who had been abandoned by his allies in a state of despondence. Instead of triumphing on a feeble, and a fallen monarch, he raised him from the dust, and ordered that his majesty should be treated with all the deference due to his exalted rank. The policy of this conduct is, perhaps, less worthy of commendation than its heroism. His duplicity, timidity, and irresolution, had rendered this prince not only despised, but hated by his subjects. He readily declared himself, indeed, at the head of the confederation, and, for a time, sanctioned the insurrection by the thin and transparent veil of *legitimacy*, which he threw over the ranks of his embattled countrymen. On this, as on all other occasions, his majesty was entirely passive; for, adopting a cunning, but odious, neutrality, he prepared, as usual, to abandon the vanquished, and declare himself on the side of the victor. An opportunity but too soon presented itself!

Kosciusko now beheld multitudes joining his standard; he calculated on an army of 70,000 men, and he was in hopes to be able to excite a universal insurrection among the whole body of peasants.

In this situation of affairs, the general has been loudly censured for not summoning a national diet, declaring bondage at an end, and converting all Poland into one great camp, in which every one of an age capable of bearing arms should assemble. But, unhappily, many of the nobles of his own party possessed multitudes of slaves, whom they considered as no less their property than their horses, their hawks, and their dogs; and such is the effect of vassallage, that, rather than give liberty to their bondsmen, they them-

selves were willing to bow the neck beneath the iron yoke of Russia.

Meanwhile, Prussia, which had hitherto temporised, began to act with decision and effect. While one body of the troops of that nation seized on Cracovia, another marched against Warsaw; and it was expected that a sanguinary combat would take place between Kosciusko and Frederick William. But Kosciusko now, for the first time, acted on the defensive; and the Prussian army was doomed to be overcome by raw troops, and a general unknown in the annals of European warfare. This accordingly took place, for after a long and hopeless siege the assailants were obliged to retreat; happy at being able to reach the frontiers of Silesia.

But Suwarrow, now advanced at the head of a body of veterans, breathing revenge, and denouncing slaughter. To prevent a meditated junction with the troops under General Fersen, Kosciusko attacked the latter, who were far superior to him, both in skill and numbers. A bloody and decisive engagement now ensued, and, after a conflict of five hours, the Poles at length gave way. Kosciusko, after a variety of charges, and risking his life a thousand times, received a deep and dangerous wound; and, being both unable and unwilling to leave the field, he at length found himself surrounded and a prisoner. Such was the change of circumstances, that the victor of yesterday was obliged to submit to those he had so recently vanquished, and that too, with such fearful odds against him.

Meanwhile, the Generals Suwarrow and Fersen, having effected the meditated junction, and Kosciusko being now strictly guarded and confined, all Poland, from this moment, appertained to the victors. A ferocious general immediately marched against Warsaw, which was garrisoned by a body of gallant Poles, the only remaining hope and consolation of their unhappy country. But it was fated, that the army which had sacked Ismailoff, and destroyed its garrison of 20,000 men, should repeat the same scene in the capital of Poland. The Russians marched to the assault, and made themselves masters of the works.

The Polish chiefs, Kosciusko, Polocki, &c. were sent under a strong military escort to Petersburg, and thrown into dungeons; and the unhappy monarch himself was ordered to repair, first to Grodno and then to Petersburg, where he soon ended his days, without exciting, after the high hopes, on very slender grounds, conceived of him in the commencement of his reign, the slightest emotion of either esteem or regret.*

A third and final partition of the unfortunate kingdom of Poland, after a short interval, took place, conformably to a new convention, (signed at Petersburg, October 24, 1795,) between the crown of Russia and Prussia, to which Austria afterwards acceded; and the very name of Poland was, from this time, blotted out from the map of Europe. Such were the exploits per-

* Stanislaus Poniatowski, late King of Poland, and Grand Duke of Lithuania, died at Petersburg, Feb. 12, 1798.

formed on the eastern side of Christendom, by the high and very dear allies of England, jointly engaged with her in a confederacy, which had for its professed object the restoration of religion, and social order, and regular government—exploits which infinitely exceeded, in atrocity and barbarity, any crimes which, surrounded as she was with enemies, and irritated by every species of provocation, had been, in the very crisis of her revolution, perpetrated by the atheists and anarchists of France.

In the mean time, Kosciusko was confined in the dungeon of a fort in the vicinity of the capital of Russia, by Catherine II. who, by a judicious distribution of a few pensions and medals among the *litterati* of Europe, had contrived to obtain a high reputation for clemency at a cheap rate. The death of that princess, whose real character has never been sufficiently developed, at length freed this noble Pole from his fetters; and the magnanimity of her son, which has never been duly appreciated, conferred on him his liberty, to which he generously added an income, sufficient to supply all his wants. Nay, the new emperor did more; he visited his illustrious prisoner, and was himself the harbinger of his own generous intentions.

But Kosciusko had no longer any country in Europe; he therefore resolved to repair to his adopted one in America. Having taken a passage from St. Petersburg to London, on his arrival in the capital of England, the house where he resided was completely surrounded by an admiring multitude; and persons of rank, of all parties and descriptions, were eager to pay their respects to the hero. The Whig Club voted him a sword, and sent a deputation to announce the intelligence.

His reception in America was of the most brilliant kind; for, on his arrival there, he was joyfully received both by the government and the people. But the state of his wounds, and indeed his declining health, prohibited a long sojourn in the transatlantic continent. The situation of Europe, too, was such as to afford hopes of better times for his unfortunate country.

After a short stay, during which he obtained possession of the grants of land formerly assigned to him by Congress for his services in the revolutionary war, Kosciusko re-embarked, and landed in France,—which he had left a monarchy, and now found a republic! He was received with every possible attention by the Directory; and as the climate agreed with him, he soon after settled in that country. But, Russia having declared war against France, by a rare instance of magnanimity, he resigned the pension of the emperor, and lived long enough to see the *autocrat* crouch under the sword of Bonaparte. He also beheld his enemy Suwarrow die in disgrace, amidst the scorn and indignation of mankind,—who, by this time, had forgotten his exploits, and only remembered his enormities.

When Bonaparte became first consul, and then sovereign, it was hoped he would extend a protecting hand to Poland; but this was not the case, and no mention of that unhappy country is made in

the treaty of Amiens, although the interests of the Ottoman Porte are strictly guarded and provided for by an express article.

At length, on the renewal of the continental war, it was expected that Bonaparte would have achieved the liberation of Poland; and, had he been in earnest on this subject, he might have obtained far more real glory than he had hitherto enjoyed. His grand project for the invasion of Russia; his bold scheme, which led him to encounter all the horrors of a polar winter; his energetic, but useless, march to Moscow;—would have been then unnecessary. In this case, his army would have remained entire; his reputation would have been enhanced; the tranquillity of Europe would have been strengthened by recreating a new and independent kingdom; and the crown of France would have been firmly fixed on his head: while the sceptre of Charlemagne must have been transferred to a son, who, in his own person, unites the blood of Napoleon and St. Louis, to that of Maria Theresa.

In 1806, when the Emperor of France deemed it necessary, for his defence, to occupy Poland, he invited Kosciusko to join him at Berlin: but, as his health would not permit him to remove from the vicinity of the French capital, he declined to repair thither. However, his name and credit were invoked upon this occasion, as will appear from the following state paper.

General Kosciusko's Address to his Countrymen.

Amidst the clangour of arms, which re-echoes from Poland, Kosciusko is about to join you.—In the enterprise of the French, in their triumphs, and by their awful eagle hovering before them, you will distinguish those legions which display their courage in the four quarters of the globe, while in one campaign they have dispersed the united force of two great empires; and have lately in one week annihilated the labours of a century, the work of Frederick, and the trophies of his old and celebrated generals.

Dear countrymen and friends, who have proved yourselves to possess a degree of fortitude equal to our misfortunes; you, who, banished from your native soil, have remained under a nation friendly to Poland; and who, having become strangers in the heart of that country, nevertheless preserved the sense of glory, and the recollection of our brethren,—arise! the great nation is before you: Napoleon expects, and Kosciusko calls you!

I soon shall again behold the paternal earth which my arm defended; those fields which I have bathed with my blood; and with tears of joy I embrace the unfortunate friends whom I was not permitted to follow to the grave.

Beloved and brave countrymen, whom I was compelled to abandon to the yoke of the conquerors, I have only lived to avenge your wrongs; and I now return to restore you to freedom. Sacred remains of my country! I hail you with transport, and embrace you with a sacred mania. I will join you, never more to part. Worthy of the great man whose arm is extended towards you, worthy of the Poles who now hear my voice, I shall endeavour to establish a more splendid and stable basis; or, if the name of my native country amount to no more with my fellow citizens than so many empty words, in this case I shall know how to avoid my own disaster and your disgrace, by burying myself under

the noble ruins of our aspiring fortune. But, no; the good times of Poland have returned. Destiny has not led Napoleon and his invincibles to the shores of the Vistula without an object. We are under the ægis of the monarch who vanquished difficulties as it were by a miracle; and the re-animation of Poland is too glorious a subject not to have been left by the Eternal Judge for him to achieve.

Paris Nov. 1, 1816.

KOSCIUSKO.

But Bonaparte was content, on this memorable occasion, with expelling the Russians, and occupying their portion of Poland with his troops: this measure had become absolutely necessary for his ultimate designs, for he now converted it into a place of arms; and it afterwards became a place of retreat, when forsaken by fortune, and abandoned by his allies, he here sought refuge, with the remnant of an army, from the flames of Moscow, and the vengeance of the Cossacks. His treaties and connexions with the court of Vienna precluded the possibility of becoming the restorer of Poland; for he had yielded to the vulgar ambition of having an emperor for a father-in-law, and did not find, until too late, that the house of Austria was wholly regardless of such ties, which were, indeed, considered as a humiliation;—security and aggrandisement alone have ever been the leading features of the policy of that family. The events that succeeded are too well known to all Europe to be enumerated here; certain it is, that, after the fall of Kosciusko, the Poles despaired of their freedom; and their unhappy country, finally united to Russia, is now governed by an archduke, the brother of the present emperor.

Meantime, the gallant and unfortunate Pole, steadfast to his purpose remained amid the happy solitude of a country-life, and never more revisited his beloved country. Such was the veneration paid to his character, however, that when the allies entered France, his little habitation remained sacred and inviolable: even the Russians had been now taught to respect so gallant and so noble an enemy.

The Emperor Alexander, like his father Paul, seemed anxious to salute the Pole; he commiserated his misfortunes, he admired his intrepidity, and he could not but respect his patriotism: he even expressed a wish to restore him to his former rank and consequence in the country that had given him birth; but, with a consistency worthy of his character, he is said to have sternly rejected the proffered boon. ‘If your Majesty means by Poland,’ continued he, ‘that Poland, such as it was in 1794, I am both ready and willing to return to my native land; but I cannot condescend to serve under a foreign prince who wears its crown. Therefore, unless Poland be governed by a native sovereign, or a republican form of government is established there, I must decline your Majesty’s most gracious offer.’ The emperor is reported to have replied, with his usual policy and circumspection, ‘All you have uttered, General, is praiseworthy, and merits my esteem; but I can say nothing at present about the government of Poland, for all these matters are to be finally discussed and settled at a Congress about to be held at Vienna.’

The private life of Kosciusko was, to the full, as romantic as the public one. With the high-born dame, alluded to in a former part of this narrative, he was afterwards united, and became her third husband. By this lady he had a daughter, who is since married, and resides in Poland; so that he may have grand-children to glory in his name; and, if occasion should offer, to vindicate his honour and his cause.

When forsaken, and nearly forgotten by all the world, one faithful friend still remained to the gallant Pole. This was M. Ziltner, with whom he resided during the last few years of his life, in the vicinity of Fontainebleau. This gentleman had been formerly minister from the Swiss cantons to the court of the Tuilleries; and his friend, in return, contrived that the imperial bounty of which he himself disdained to partake, should insure independence to the old age of his kind and beneficent host.

During the autumn of 1817, they took a long journey together, for the purpose of visiting Switzerland, and paying homage to the cradle of so many patriots and heroes. It was at Soleure that Kosciusko resigned his breath, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, happy to escape from a land of tyranny and priestcraft, and to draw his last sigh within sight of the canton that gave birth to William Tell, the liberator of Switzerland.

The brave, disinterested, and virtuous Kosciusko is now no more. He is gone where the voice of flattery cannot reach, followed by the praises of the good in every clime where liberty is prized or understood. He loved America, fought, and bled in her defence. In all his intercourse with the citizens of this country he evinced the utmost desire to serve their cause and promote their interests*. In his days of power, at the head of armies that adored his name, no false glory dazzled him, nor corrupt ambition could betray him. He nobly resisted the foreign potentates who had laid waste his country, not because they were kings and emperors, but because they were invaders and oppressors. He combated with no rebellious sword—for no ambiguous object. When Poland lost her independence, Kosciusko lost his home: as she sunk he rose; but not upon her ruins. The court of Russia would have allured this illustrious defender of the people whom she had subjugated, by temptations irresistible to vulgar minds; Bonaparte would have made him the flattered instrument of a spurious and hollow liberty to his countrymen; but Kosciusko saw that their lot was irretrievable, and his own he refused to change. As a soldier and a patriot, in public life and in retirement, his principles were untainted, and his name unsullied; the monarchs whom he opposed respected him; the factions who failed to seduce, forbore to slander him; and he would have been a Washington, had he not been a Wallace.

UNNOTICED shall the mighty fall?
Unwept and unlamented die?—
Shall he, whom bonds could not enthrall,
Who planned, who fought, who bled for all,
Unconsecrated lie?

* A letter from Kosciusko to Paul Jones was given at page 235.

Without a song, whose fervid strains
Might kindle fire in patriot veins!—
No!—thus it ne'er shall be: and fame
Ordains to thee a brighter lot;
While earth—while hope endures, thy name,
Pure—high—unchangeable—the same—
Shall never be forgot;
'Tis shrined amid the holy throng;
'Tis woven in immortal song!—

Yes!—Campbell of the deathless lay
The ardent poet of the free,
Has painted Warsaw's latest day,
In colours that resist decay,
In accents worthy Thee;
Thy hosts on battle field arrayed,
And in thy grasp the patriot blade!

Oh! sainted is the name of him,
And sacred should his relics be,
Whose course no selfish aims bedim;
Who, spotless as the seraphim,
Exerts his energy,
To make the earth by freemen trod,
And see mankind the sons of God!

And thou wert one of these; 'twas thine,
Through thy devoted country's night,
The latest of a freeborn line,
With all that purity to shine,
Which makes a hero bright;
With all that lustre to appear,
Which freemen love, and tyrants fear

A myrtle wreath was on thy blade,
Which broke before its cause was won!—
Thou, to no sordid fears betrayed,
Mid desolation undisnayed,
Wert mighty, though undone;
No terrors gloomed thy closing scene,
In danger and in death serene!

Though thou hast bade our world farewell
And left the blotted lands beneath,
In purer, happier realms to dwell;
With Wallace, Washington, and Tell,
Thou sharest the laurel wreath—
The Brutus of degenerate climes!
A beacon-light to other times!

ART. IX.—*Capture of the Army under General Burgoyne at Saratoga.*

NOTHING is so well calculated to fasten upon the memory the leading features of an engagement, as a well-drawn sketch of the ground, with the position and movements of the several forces. Such, it is considered, we are enabled to present to our readers on this occasion, and if it serve to illustrate an event of signal consequences in our history,—to show more clearly the value of skill in military combinations,—and to afford to the scientific officer a specimen of the graphic art, so necessary to the study of his profession, we flatter ourselves that we shall be rendering a service generally acceptable, in rescuing from oblivion a plan curious in itself,

but particularly deserving of attention as a tactical representation of a very memorable national success, from the pencil of an American officer.

In our account of Ticonderoga, we briefly recapitulated the circumstances of Burgoyne's advance from Canada, with a superior force, and the retreat of the garrison. His army, on its entrance into the United States' territory consisted, according to the returns in general Burgoyne's 'State of the expedition from Canada' of between seven and eight thousand men, British and Germans.

The instructions given to this officer, it has since appeared, were, to clear the country about the Lakes, to penetrate to the river Hudson with his main-body, and, effecting a junction with Sir Henry Clinton at Albany, who was to be detached for the purpose with an adequate force from New York, thus possess himself of the command of that river,—establish an easy communication by the Hudson with the army under Sir William Howe, then having its head-quarters at New York,—and complete a line of separation between the country north of the Hudson, and all to the southward. In the sequel, it was expected, that each of these divided parts, taken in detail, might be more successfully over-run, and all co-operation being effectually cut off, the reduction of the whole would be speedily accomplished.

Such was the scheme projected by the British for the campaign in the north of 1777, a scheme, the development of which might have been attended with serious results to the American cause, had not a combination of circumstances providentially intervened to frustrate its execution, by enabling the valour of our troops to annihilate the power of one of the finest and best appointed armies that ever entered our territory.

General Burgoyne had detached colonel St. Leger with orders to reach Albany from Canada by a different route. He was to ascend the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario, and thence to proceed down the Mohawk. He had accordingly reached the head of this river, and was investing Fort Scuyler, when intelligence of his operations was brought to Burgoyne, who perceived the importance of a rapid movement down the Hudson, in order to aid him in his project, and to effect the junction of the troops. But this intention could not be executed without the aid of ox-teams, carriages and provisions, to procure which he detached Lieut. colonel Baum, a German officer, with about 500 regulars, and 100 Indians, having with them two light pieces of artillery, to take possession of a depôt of grain, cattle, and provisions at Bennington, which, according to information obtained, was guarded by militia only. The Lieut. colonel approached within a few miles of the place, when, being threatened by a superior militia force under colonel Stark,* which had come out to meet him, he deemed it imprudent to per-

* This officer had distinguished himself at the battle of Bunker's Hill, as noticed at pp. 152. 156.

severe in the intended attack until the arrival of a reinforcement, and dispatching a messenger to the general with an account of his situation and necessities, improved the interval in rendering his post as defensible, by means of a breast-work and intrenchment, as time and the advantageous nature of the ground would admit. Lieut. colonel Breyman, with the Brunswick grenadiers, light-infantry, and chasseurs, was sent to his support, but in consequence of the roads being rendered nearly impassable by a heavy fall of rain, and other impediments, he could not arrive previously to the assault of the works;—colonel Stark, with the decision and promptitude that marked his character, having attacked, and after a severe contest, carried them in the face of every obstacle. The remains of the detachment fell back in disorder upon the column advancing to their relief, pursued by the victors, when, at a distance of about two miles from the scene of the late affair, the opposing forces met; a general action ensued, maintained on both sides with the most determined obstinacy, until the Germans, taking advantage of the cover of night, retreated, leaving behind, their artillery, and baggage. The militia captured on this occasion 4 brass field-pieces, 12 brass drums, some hundred stand of arms, 250 dragoon swords, 4 ammunition wagons, and about 700 prisoners, among whom was Lieut. Col. Baum. This decisive victory inspired the troops with additional spirit, encouraged the neighbouring militia, and was productive of that good confidence which is the usual attendant of success.

The tardiness of his supplies from Canada, and a failure in the object of the detachment sent to Bennington, had delayed general Burgoyne's progress towards Albany. He had obtained possession of Ticonderoga on the 5th of July, the action at Bennington took place on the 16th of August, and it was not until the month following that he began to move upon the Hudson. Having at length obtained about thirty days provision, with other stores, by the Lakes, he concentrated his force, and, crossing the river on the 13th and 14th September, took post on the heights and in the plain of Saratoga. He next advanced along the margin of the river on the 15th from Saratoga to Davocote. His dilatory approach had afforded time for multiplying difficulties in his route, and he was under the necessity of halting during the 16th and 17th in order to repair bridges in his front.

Meanwhile, the American army, under the command of major general Gates, which was encamped about two miles in front of Stillwater, received considerable augmentation. Draughts of militia from the neighbouring states had been put in requisition, and their accession to his force determined the general to dispute the farther progress of the enemy. The celebrated rifle corps of colonel Morgan had, very judiciously, been despatched by general Washington to join Gates, in the confidence that it would prove, as was afterwards verified, of essential service. That great man appeared to have entertained a sort of prophetic foresight of the fate that awaited the expedition of Burgoyne, no doubt from an

accurate estimation of the difficulties attending his attempt; and in a despatch to the officer commanding the northern division of the army, in the early part of the campaign he thus expressed himself:

‘Notwithstanding things at present wear a dark and gloomy aspect, I hope a spirited opposition will check the progress of general Burgoyne’s arms, and that the confidence derived from success at the outset will hurry him into measures that will, in their consequences, be favourable to us. We should never despair. Our situation has before been unpromising, and has changed for the better; so, I trust, it will again. If new difficulties arise, we must only put forth new exertions, and proportion our efforts to the exigency of the times.’

Again, on receiving a communication, stating the position of the enemy, and informing him of the detachments from their main body, sent in different quarters previous to the affair of Bennington, his reply was as follows:

‘I yet look forward to a fortunate and happy change. I trust general Burgoyne’s army will meet, sooner or later, an effectual check; and, as I suggested before, that the success he at first met with, will precipitate his ruin. From your accounts, he appears to be pursuing that line of conduct which, of all others, is most favourable to us—I mean, acting in detachment. This proceeding will certainly afford room for enterprise on our part, and expose his parties to great hazard. Could we be so happy as to cut one of them off, though it should not exceed four, five, or six hundred men, it would inspirit the people, and be productive of the happiest effects.’

On the 18th September, a division of the American army, consisting of Morgan’s riflemen and a body of light-infantry, under colonel Durbin, together 3000 strong, marched out to occupy an advanced post.* Next day, general Burgoyne, putting himself at the head of the right wing of the British line, which was covered by the grenadiers and light-infantry, under brigadier-general Fraser and col. Breyman, with some Indians and Canadians, advanced towards the American left-wing, through some intervening woods of no great extent, while major-generals Phillips and Reidesel proceeded on the great road and meadows by the river side.

Some of the American scouting parties fell in with those of the British, and, with great boldness, commenced the attack about noon. General Phillips supported his men with the artillery, which was taken and retaken repeatedly in course of the action. From half past 12 until about half past 2 o’clock, the battle raged with great fury; at about 3 it became general. Both armies rivalled each other in the most persevering and intrepid exertions to secure the advantage of the day. A continual fire was maintained on both sides for three hours without intermission. Each party occupied the ground in dispute, and was alternately dislodged from it. The 20th, 21st and 62d British regiments suffered considerably by a close and unremitted fire throughout; the latter being reduced from

* The respective positions of the two armies on this occasion are detailed in general Wilkinson’s *Memoirs*, vol. 1, page 235.

its complement of 500 men, when it left Quebec, to less than 60 privates and 4 or 5 commissioned officers. The troops engaged on the American side were Morgan's and Durbin's corps, with detachments of the 1st, 2d and 3d New Hampshire regiments, 2d and 3d New York, 8th, 9th and 10th Massachusetts, and the Connecticut militia. The 9th Massachusetts, colonel Weston's, greatly distinguished itself. Colonel Scammel, of the first New Hampshire regiment, a most active, brave, and enterprising officer, led on his men close to the enemy with great coolness before he gave orders to fire. The good effects of this plan he had experienced in the action at Bunker's Hill, and on this occasion he had the satisfaction of witnessing a repetition of them. This severe conflict terminated only with the day; it was characterized by a resolute pertinacity in attack and defence such as had no parallel during the war, and closed without any variation of position in the contending armies. Officers of the British army observed that, in all the engagements in which they had been, in Flanders and elsewhere, they never knew so long and so hot a fire. General Burgoyne, relating the account of the battle of Stillwater in his 'State of the Expedition,' gives the following testimony to the conduct on both sides.

'The action which ensued on the 19th of September, verified my opinion of the valour of my army, and I must, in truth, acknowledge a very respectable share of that quality in the army of the enemy.'

The loss of the British on this occasion was upwards of 500 in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The American loss amounted to 64 killed, 217 wounded, and 38 missing, in all 319, officers included. After the action, general Gates was under the necessity of sending to Albany not only for powder, but also for all the window-leads, and other lead that could be procured for making bullets. Provisions also fell short; the army was never encumbered with rations for more than three days at a time, and on the day of action was entirely destitute, the supply not arriving till the 20th. At this period, general Gates's force amounted to about 7000 men, general Lincoln, who had been detached for the purpose of bringing up the militia collecting from the north-western parts of New England, not having joined.

The British army next fortified their right, and extended their left to the brow of the heights, so as to cover the meadows through which the Hudson runs, and where their batteaux and hospital were placed. General Gates, meantime, was assiduous in strengthening his left by intrenchments covered with strong abattis. From the 20th September to the 7th October, the armies were so close to each other that not a night passed without firing, and sometimes concerted attacks upon the British advanced picquets. No foraging party could be sent out from Burgoyne's camp without strong covering detachments. Gates wisely adopted the policy of harassing the enemy by constant alarms, and, on being joined by general Lincoln with about 2000 militia, followed by other reinforcements, was enabled thus to distress his opponent with considerable effect. Bur-

goyne had from the beginning a firm hope of being relieved by a strong force from the army at New York, but the intended diversion in his favor was delayed in consequence of the tardy passage of reinforcements from Europe. Their earlier arrival might have greatly altered the complexion of affairs in general, but Providence in its just decrees had ordered otherwise. His situation was now critical in the extreme; in front a numerous and tried army under a skilful commander,—in rear a difficult country, with passes capable of being strongly contested by men who had it in their power to oppose innumerable obstacles to retreat;—and every avenue to relief cut off. Straitened for provisions, there remained but the feeble hope of the expected co-operation being undertaken in time to effect his deliverance. To hold out as long as it was possible, now seemed the only alternative, and, with this view, the British general was under the necessity of placing his army on reduced allowance. It was the 7th of October, and still no intelligence had been received of Sir Henry Clinton's advance. The stock of provisions in camp was fast diminishing, and no supply could be obtained in consequence of the precautionary arrangements of his adversary. Burgoyne therefore determined to hazard a general action, and accordingly made a demonstration on the left of the American line with a view, not only to attempt forcing a passage should it be found expedient to advance, or of dislodging it for the convenience of a retreat, but also to cover a forage of the army, greatly distressed as it was from scarcity. The guard of the camp on the heights was left to brigadier-generals Hamilton and Specht, that on the redoubts and plain near the river to brigadier-general Gall. Burgoyne himself, generals Phillips, Reidesel, and Fraser moved, early in the morning with a column of 1500 men from the right, supported by two twelve-pounders, 2 howitzers, and 6 six-pounders. The skirmishers being driven in by colonel Morgan's riflemen and the light-infantry, fell back upon the main-body which advanced and formed within three quarters of a mile of the left of the American camp. The British artillery took post on a clear spot of ground nearly surrounded by woods. The Canadians and Indians were pushed on through by-paths to gain the American rear, and to occupy their attention in that quarter. The Americans, as they approached the British column, were raked by the artillery, notwithstanding which they deployed in good order at a distance of about 200 yards. They then proceeded to make a sudden and rapid attack upon the British grenadiers, who were posted to support the left-wing of the line. Major Ackland, a name well known in the British army and noted in that war, at their head sustained this onset, and was wounded. General Gates ordered out more regiments, extending the attack along the whole front of the Germans, who were posted immediately on the right of the grenadiers. By this manœuvre, the enemy were prevented from withdrawing any of the Germans for the purpose of forming a second line on the flank where it was most needed. At the same time, three regiments from the left, came out to attack the front of the enemy's right, and another division

moved round their flank in order to intercept their retreat into camp. The British light-infantry, under brigadier-general Fraser, with part of the 24th Regt. were, upon this, directed to form a second line, in order to cover the retreat of the troops into camp. Fresh troops having been directed against the enemy's left, that part of their line were compelled to give way, and the light-infantry and 24th Regt. were obliged to make a quick movement in order to save that point from being carried; in doing which, general Fraser was mortally wounded.

Meantime, the right under Burgoyne was vigorously pressed, and with much difficulty retired to the lines, their field-pieces being taken, and great part of the artillery corps destroyed. Scarcely had they regained the camp, when it was stormed with great fury, the Americans rushing to the lines under a severe fire of grape-shot and small-arms, and Lieut. colonel Brooks* at the head of the Massachusetts militia carried the intrenchments of the German reserve, commanded by colonel Breyman, who was killed. Darkness put an end to this hard fought day. The Americans laid upon their arms, and the action would have been resumed with more positive advantages on their side the following morning: foreseeing which, the British general altered his position in the night, and took up ground at a greater elevation on the heights. The object of the enemy was defeated by this action, and, as matters then stood, each unsuccessful attack served only to accelerate his future fall.

Burgoyne now found that the troops opposed to him were able to sustain an attack in open plains with the intrepidity and spirit of veterans. His expectation of forcing a passage was altogether at an end, while the prospect of being enclosed on all sides continued to blacken around him. A strong division of the American army threatened his right flank, when he found it necessary, as the only means of counteracting the tendency of this manœuvre, to retire to Saratoga, and in the night commenced a retreat, pursued by general Gates, who, foreseeing this movement, had sent a light detachment by a circuitous route to obstruct the passes in his rear. It had arrived at Saratoga before him, and was engaged in throwing up intrenchments on the heights, on the same side of the river, but, on his approach, was withdrawn over a ford of the Hudson's river, and joined a body under general Fellows posted to oppose the passage.

In this dilemma, the situation of the army under Burgoyne was reduced to the last extremity. The faint glimmer of hope from any diversion in its favor was fast expiring, and, to add to its calamities, colonel St. Leger's detachment, on which much reliance had been placed for co-operation, had received a severe check on the Mohawk, which terminated the promised aid from that quarter. The colonel, being deserted by his Indian Allies, who were disappointed in their hopes of plunder, and alarmed by a report of the

* The present governor of Massachusetts.

defeat of Burgoyne, was obliged to raise the siege of Fort Schuyler in such haste, that the artillery with great part of the baggage, ammunition, and provisions fell into the hands of the garrison. As he returned immediately into Canada, Burgoyne was precluded from all expectation of being strengthened by a junction, and the American forces were enabled to concentrate themselves in order to oppose him.

The artificers of the British army were dispatched, on their arrival at Saratoga, under a strong escort, to repair the bridges and open a road to Fort Edward on the west side of the river. The 47th Regiment, and some light troops were ordered for that service, but their progress was opposed by a body posted on the heights on the other side of the creek, on which they were recalled.

During these different movements, the batteaux with provisions were frequently fired upon by the American light-troops (see their 2d position in the plan) from the opposite side of the river. Several were taken and retaken, till at length, the British found it impossible to secure the provisions otherwise than by landing them, and carrying them up the hill. This was with great difficulty effected, under a heavy fire, strong guards of their army being found necessary to cover its execution.

The position of the American army now extended three parts in four of a circle around the British. A cannonade was maintained on all parts of their line. General Nixon's division took up an advanced post on the same side of the Fishkill creek, while colonel Morgan's corps of riflemen pressed upon the opposite flank, so that it would have been impossible to have moved undiscovered, had the idea of a retreat by night been adopted by the British general. No means of extrication now remained but to abandon his artillery and baggage, and, by forcing the passage across the Hudson, to escape to Fort George through roads impassable by wagons.

Scouts were sent out to examine the route, who returned with information that those fords were already defended by strong parties, and it would have been extremely difficult, if not impossible, to force them, deprived of artillery, and harassed by a pursuing army, flushed with victory, and pressing closely in the rear. In addition to which, an intrenched camp furnished with artillery was formed on the high grounds between Fort Edward and Fort George. This plan of retreat therefore was abandoned as impracticable. An account of the provision on hand in the British camp was then taken, when it appeared that, even on short allowance, a supply only for three days remained in store. No advice had been received of Sir Henry Clinton, although messengers had been dispatched representing the necessity of his advance.

General Gates understood perfectly the straitened situation of his adversary, and anticipated the speedy arrival of the crisis which he was aware must terminate in his surrender. Burgoyne, seeing the utter hopelessness of attempting to remain in his position until relieved, and, weakened as he was by successive encounters, the impossibility of withstanding an attack if it should take place, call-

ed a council of his officers, who unanimously agreed that the situation of the army was such that, in order to prevent an useless effusion of blood, a treaty should be entered into with major-general Gates. A negotiation was accordingly opened by Burgoyne, and after some discussion of propositions, a convention was agreed to and signed on the 17th October, in virtue of which the British army marched out of their encampment and laid down their arms. Gates, with a magnanimity of sentiment, and a generous delicacy of feeling, that eminently adorn the brave, declined assembling his army to be present at the spectacle of this submission in a conquered enemy, unwilling by any act, to be supposed to do that which might be construed in the remotest degree to wound the feelings of unfortunate men. If any action were wanting to render this achievement a beautiful and praiseworthy feature in the national character, it surely was that of general Gates.

Thus terminated the career of a numerous and powerful army, led by one of the ablest generals in the British service; whose prospects on entering the campaign, extended to the dismemberment of provinces,—whose successes found their limit in the field of Saratoga. It was an event of which America had reason to be proud; it rewarded with glory the prowess of her defenders; it rendered unavailing the machinations of her enemies.

ART. X.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, and Politics.*

POLITICAL SUMMARY.

Europe, according to late advices, continued in that state of general tranquillity which every friend to human happiness must wish to see preserved. Desolating wars, in which the bulk of mankind had no interest,—waged to gratify the passions, or promote the benefits of a few who profit by hostility, have at length undeceived the survivors, and left a boundary to ambition in exhausted treasuries.

In France, a confident expectation of good crops is entertained. The aspect of the fields in the vicinity of Bordeaux is represented to be particularly favourable, and the circumstance of the bounty on the importation of flour being declared to cease on the 20th of May, seems to augur a reliance upon the natural resources of the country, which, with proper industry, stimulated by rewards for male labour, in substitution for that of women in agriculture, and the introduction of improved systems, promulgated by societies for these purposes, might undoubtedly be very materially extended. The soil of France generally is rich, and remarkably fertile, the climate mild, and in its southern latitudes, partaking of

the warmth of Italy. A bountiful Providence supplies to man every incentive to labour, in the co-operation afforded to ripen the seed which he sows, and reward his toil with plenty. Shall he then, amid all that moves, and revolves, and is animated in creation, rest in listless inactivity? If any circumstance can add to the demoralizing effects of the war system in France pursued of late years, it is that fatal policy which stripped the fields of their proper cultivators, assigned their place to the weaker members of society, and diverted to the unproductive occupation of war, a laborious and profitable peasantry.

Our mercantile readers may be interested to learn, that the price of wines was declining in France when the last accounts came away; colonial produce, particularly coffee, had risen considerably, and the demand for this article was animated—a conclusive proof of the necessity of particular attention to colonial industry.

Spain persists in her unavailing struggle with the Independents. A fresh levy has been ordered by the government, of 12,000 men, for the present

year, to be drawn by lot from all the unmarried men, between 17 and 36 years of age, from which no exemptions are to be allowed. To ordain is easy, but to raise, equip and supply a large force, in the present circumstances of that country is impossible. The promised aid from Russia, consisting of 9 ships of war, had arrived at Cadiz. The Russian crews were to return to St. Petersburg. This squadron was examined at Portsmouth by the British artificers of the naval-yard, and pronounced to be scarcely sea-worthy. It can produce no serious impression upon the cause of the Independents, and is intended, we believe, rather as a precedent for a more important operation, unconnected with South America, than as any actual demonstration in opposition to it. Some attention to the intreaties of Spain for assistance became necessary, and both Great Britain and Russia have accommodated themselves to the occasion with much felicity. The former has advanced to Spain the sum of 400,000*l* sterling, under an agreement, providing for the abolition of the African slave-trade carried on by Spanish subjects. In virtue of this agreement, Ferdinand issued a decree in December last, prohibiting his subjects from trading for slaves on the coast of Africa, south of the line, under a penalty of ten years banishment to the Philippine islands, and restricting the duration of the trade to any other part of the African coast, to May 1820, under the same penalties. With the money paid for this abolition, Spain has purchased the Russian squadron arrived at Cadiz.

The misunderstanding between the Prince of Orange and the minister of war in the Netherlands has yielded to reconciliation, and the prince has resumed the situation of commander in chief, with his seat at the military board, which he had vacated.

The ports of Great Britain are again to be opened for the free importation of flour and grain. We have received recent accounts from our correspondent there to a late date, which represent the manufacturing classes to be in full activity. Notwithstanding which, the increase of population, the continuance of excessive taxation, and the high value of land, had still a tendency to perpetuate that state of pauperism, to which

so numerous a class of persons in that country is ever subject. A committee of the house of commons appointed to consider the poor-laws, had after long investigation, agreed to a report on the state of Mendicity, in which is contained the most curious information relative to the organized system of begging. In order, if possible, to diminish the evil, it is proposed to extend the operation of Saving's Banks, of Friendly Societies, and Sunday Schools, with some alteration in the law of settlements. Where the population is so dense as in England, and the means of earning an honest livelihood so precarious, these institutions are no doubt of much practical benefit; as they are productive of positive good in every condition, it does seem an object worthy of attention to adopt them generally in our large cities, because, we think, they are calculated to diminish intoxication, to promote frugality, to stimulate industry, and lessen the calls of the improvident poor upon the contributions of their more prudent fellow-citizens.

From Russia we learn, that the emperor Alexander is giving every encouragement to the restoration of Moscow, the ancient capital of the empire. The city has been much improved in consequence of the conflagration, which destroyed chiefly the old houses and wooden buildings, which were very numerous. Stone houses, of the finest architecture, are now rising from the ashes of those buildings. The foundation stone of a magnificent church was lately laid by the emperor in person, attended by the arch-bishop, and a numerous suite of ecclesiastics.

Our limits allow room only for the following curious extract of a letter from Bushire relative to the connexion, noticed in our strictures on Russia, as subsisting between that power and Persia.

*'Bushire, April 12.—*The Russians have of late been doing all they can to conciliate the Persian nobility, strictly however, upon the principle of 'peace to the cottage, and war to the castle;'—they by no means include the king or any branch of the royal family within the circle of their benevolence, and in spite of a splendid embassy conducted by general Yermaloff and now past Erwan on its route to Tehran, the Persian

capital, I judge from other surer signs and tokens, that any thing but peace reigns in the breasts of most of those who may conduct the negotiations and conferences on either side.

‘The prince heir apparent and his minister, who both have very great influence in the councils of his majesty, openly talk of war alone as the sole means of saving their country,—indeed without war the prince is nothing, as he has more than once felt at the termination even of disastrous campaigns against the Russians.

‘The Wahabees since the determined and menacing tone in which they have been informed of the opinions of government, are burning to seize our vessels; but they find them generally too well guarded, and as true pirates, it is their interest rather to capture than to fight.

‘The chief of the Wahabees continues to be sorely pressed by the Turkish troops of the Basha of Egypt, at no great distance from his capital; he however fights and threatens to the last like a hero.

‘The greater part of the low country around us here, is about to be restored to the government of the person from whom it had for some time been alienated during the late troubles.

‘Daoud Pasha has lately ascended the Musnud of Bagdad, after murdering his predecessor.

‘P. S. April 13. Late yesterday evening, a Kassid came in from Shiraz with a packet of letters from Tabreez, which enables me to confirm what I gave you yesterday, and also to add a few particulars on the authority of an eye-witness.

‘Persia will shortly swarm with French officers. A colonel Mercier of the cavalry and captain Hubert, are the precursors and negotiators of thirty of their brethren at Paris, who are anxiously expecting the result of their reports and stipulations to proceed themselves to Tabreez. These two officers presented themselves to the prince heir apparent, attired in rich uniforms, which trifling circumstance, supported by a specious and plausible deportment, has completely won His Royal Highness’s heart, and induced him to give an immediate consent to their admission into his service. The French officers, it is said, are perfectly satisfied, and intend forwarding to their brethren an

immediate account of their favourable reception. His Royal Highness publicly declares that, his only reason for employing foreigners, is that British officers are not allowed to support him in the field with the troops, which they have constantly shown such zeal and ability in disciplining, otherwise he feels himself perfectly satisfied with us, and is disposed to employ the officers of no other nation.

‘A colonel Mazorwich passed through Tabreez early in the month of February in his way to Tehran, to arrange the etiquette and particular formalities with which H. E. the Russian ambassador expects to be admitted to the royal presence, and to announce to his majesty’s ministers the date of H. E.’s departure from Teflis towards the Persian capital. The approach of this statesman with a numerous and very splendid suite has created an unusual agitation in the country, the more so as not a breath of what his objects probably may be, has hitherto transpired, which leaves an unbounded field to the flights of imaginations so vivid as those of the Persians, and now rendered so sensible and susceptible of peaceful impressions from the influence of fear and uncertainty.

‘His Persian majesty was still at the capital, and had made splendid preparations for his reception. Some beautiful English carriages it is said, which had long lain neglected in the store rooms of the palace, were put into order and dispatched towards the frontiers for the accommodation of the ambassador. His excellency is attended by a large suite of officers, and a considerable escort, and an excellent band of music, all richly appointed and apparelled, and it is said that the taste which directed the selection of the individuals who compose the Russian cavalcade, is similar to the one cherished by the elder Frederick of Prussia in the choice of his *tall* regiment.

‘The new pasha of Bagdad has already invested a descendant of the legitimate chiefs of the Montafij tribe with a splendid robe of honor, and intends to support his claims to the government of the tribe against the usurper Humood, now at their head, and who is a cousin of the lawful chief. It is also reported that it is the wish of the Turkish government that this factious tribe be removed to some distant spot, where they

may be, less likely to insult the Ottoman power.'

NATURAL HISTORY.

* * Some additions and corrections to the valuable paper of Professor Jameson at page 164, have been supplied by the same eminent naturalist, which we request our readers to introduce.

Under *Quadrupeds and Birds*, 1. 11., for *outside*, read *inside*, and, after the next paragraph, insert the following:

'Eggs.—Collections of eggs of birds form a very interesting and beautiful department of a museum. The fresh eggs should be blown, and carefully packed in cotton, or tow, or moss. Before blowing, it is advisable to make drawings of the eggs, as the abstraction of their contents frequently occasions a considerable change in their colour, delineation of colour, and lustre of the shell.

'Nests.—All the remarkable nests of the larger birds ought to be collected, and in every instance those of the smaller species.'

Under *Molluscos Animals*, add the following paragraph:

'As many of the molluscos animals rapidly change, even when put into spirits, it is advisable to make models and drawings of them before immersion.'

Under *Crustaceous Animals*, p. 368. 1. 7. for *anus*, read *mouth*.

To section 2. on *Minerals*, p. 369, after 'wrapping paper,' add 'When the crystals are very delicate, then the specimen must be glewed to the bottom of a box, and fastened with strings.'

Under Section 7. after 'blow-pipe,' 1. 9. insert 'and bottle with muriatic acid.'

MEDICINE.

Hydrophobia.—The following has appeared in the *Hamburgh Correspondent*. 'The plant (*Alisma Plantago*, Linnæus) which is successfully employed as a cure for hydrophobia, grows in water, either in marshes, lakes, or ponds. It has a capillary root resembling that of an onion. The plant continues under water until the month of June, at the commencement of which, or even during the month of May, in a warm temperature, from five to seven detached sprouts, of a long convex form, shoot from beneath the water. These sprouts have a reddish bark, and are each provided with a pointed,

smooth, and deep-coloured leaf. In the month of June, a stalk appears with a round green root resembling that of asparagus. This stalk shoots from beneath the water, sometimes with, and sometimes without leaves. It is divided into several sprigs without leaves, at the extremity of each of which is a small trefoil flower, of a pale red colour, which afterwards contains the seed. This plant is in blossom during the whole of the summer season. The latter end of August is the fittest time to gather it. It is made use of in the following manner:—one large root, or two or three small ones, are first well washed and dried in the shade. They are then reduced to powder, and strewed upon bread and butter, and in this way administered to the patient. On the second, or, at most the third trial, this remedy will destroy the virus of the madness, however violent it may be, even when the symptoms of hydrophobia have already appeared. This root operates with equal efficacy on dogs. During an interval of twenty-five years, this specific has constantly been found an infallible preservative against madness. It has cured individuals in whom this disease has acquired so decided a character, that they attacked and bit all who came near them; and no symptoms of relapse were ever observable. Numerous cures have been effected, particularly in the government of Tula.'

We are indebted for this notice to Mr. F. V. Turgeneff, who has lately sent from Moscow, for gratuitous distribution, 600 copies of an engraving and description of this plant.

Literary Gazette.

GEOGRAPHY.

LIEUT. KOTZEBUE'S DISCOVERY IN THE RUSSIAN SHIPRURIK.

Petersburgh, Oct. 31, 1817.

The following is an abstract of the report of lieut. Kotzebue to the chancellor, count Romanzow:

'In consequence of instructions given to lieut. Kotzebue, he was to sail in the summer of 1817, to Norton Bay, to make a voyage into the interior of North America. Conformably to those instructions, lieut. K. sailed on the 17th of July, 1817, from the port of St. Peter and St. Paul, for the above-named bay. The wind was so favourable on the passage, that on the 26th he arriv-

ed at the isle of St. Lawrence, about two degrees south of Behring's Straits. As there remained sufficient time to go into Norton Bay, he resolved to enter Behring's Straits, if circumstances favoured him in that respect. He could not, it is true, flatter himself that he should be able to go farther north than captain Cook, but he wished more nearly to observe the coast of America. He entered Behring's Straits on the 30th of July, with a favourable wind and cloudy weather; and the next day he found himself off a bay, which he wished to examine; but the great number of shallows and the want of canoes, with which he had not provided himself, obliged him to give up that research until next year. He continued his course along the coast of America, keeping as near to it as possible; and on the 1st of August he discovered a passage, into which he entered, and to which he perceived no boundaries; it was only after having navigated for two days that he saw land. Lieut. K. employed more than fifteen days in exploring that great bay, in the hopes of finding in it the mouth of some river. The inhabitants, who came to reconnoitre him in canoes, and who conducted themselves most amicably towards the Rurik (his ship's name), although they appeared very warlike, being all armed, pointed out to him a little bay, where, according to their report, he would find a canal, which would conduct him to the open sea; but it required, they said, a navigation of eight days before he could reach the sea. He examined that, to which he gave the name of Good Hope, and found the mouth of a small river, but it was navigable only for canoes, and into which he consequently could not enter. From the number of canoes which he found at the entrance of the great bay, the country must be well peopled. Lieut. K. gives, in his report, a very favourable description of the inhabitants. They are tall, strong, and well made, and appear to have acquired a greater degree of civilization than the inhabitants of the middle part of the North West Coast of America.—They learned in the bay of St. Lawrence, upon the coast of Asia, where the Rurik anchored, that the Ischutkches, who inhabit that coast are in a state of habitual hostility with their American neighbours; but that they barter with

the Ischutkches, who inhabit a more distant country, and who receive iron, tobacco, and coral, in exchange for their skins. A stormy and very cold season forced this officer to quit this bay, and to return to the south, resolving to pursue his discoveries next year. He then sailed to New Albion, where he was kindly received; from the Spanish governor of San Francisco he experienced the greatest attention and kindness, and had his vessel re-victualled."

MECHANICS.

M. C. A. Erb, professor of philosophy at Heidelberg, has invented a cheap and simple hydraulic apparatus, by which ships and vessels of all kinds, from the smallest to the largest, may be propelled, with a small exertion of force, against the most violent currents and storms, in constant uniform motion, with a rapidity capable of any increase, without the use of oars or sails. Sinking ships may be preserved from farther sinking by this apparatus, according to the direction to be given to it. It governs the motion of the largest ship, so as to move it at pleasure, from a state of rest, by the small difference of an inch, or a line, or without progressive motion, to turn it round on one point in every direction. *Edin. Mag.*

CHEMISTRY.

M. Girard, of the Institute, has published, in a treatise on the Valley of Egypt, an analysis of the mud of the Nile, so celebrated by the fertility it communicates to the soil of that country. It appears from chemical experiments made by M. Regnault, that in a hundred parts of the mud, there are eleven of water, nine of carbon, six of oxide of iron, four of silex, four of carbonate of magnesia, eighteen of carbonate of lime, and forty-eight of alumen. The quantities of silex and alumen vary according to the places where the mud is taken; that on the banks of the river contains a great deal of sand, while in that at a distance the argil is almost pure. The abundance of this earth in the mud renders it proper for the purposes of the arts. They make excellent brick of it, and vases of different forms; it enters into the fabrication of pipes; the glassmakers employ it in the construction of their furnaces; the inhabitants of the country parts co

ver their houses with it, and consider it as a sufficient manure for their lands.

ib.

HISTORY.

Mr. C. K. Barth, of Baireuth, is printing the *Ancient History of Germany*, down to the time of Arminius, in two 8vo. volumes, the second of which will be devoted to the geography of the country, and the manners, religion, &c. of the inhabitants.

ib.

EDUCATION.

Learned Women.—One of Daniel Defoe's projects was an academy for the education of women. Of the effects of education on females and the evils resulting from the want of it, he expresses his opinion in the following terms:—

'A well-bred woman and well taught, furnished with the additional accomplishments of knowledge and behaviour, is a creature without comparison. Her society is the emblem of sublimer enjoyments, her person is angelic, and her conversation heavenly. She is all softness and sweetness; peace, love, wit, and delight. She is every way suitable to the sublimest wish, and the man that has such a one to his portion has nothing to do but rejoice in her and be thankful. On the other hand, suppose her to be the same woman, and deprived of the benefit of education, and it follows thus:—If her temper be good, want of education makes her soft and easy; her wit, for want of teaching, renders her impertinent and talkative; her knowledge, for want of judgment and experience, makes her fanciful and whimsical. If her temper be bad, want of breeding makes her worse; and she grows haughty, insolent, and loud. If she be passionate, want of manners makes her a termagant and a scold, which is much as one with a lunatic. If she be proud, want of discretion (which is still ill-breeding) makes her conceited, fantastic, and ridiculous, and from these she degenerates to be turbulent, clamorous, noisy, and nasty.'

Lit. Pan.

POETRY.

Present State of Parnassus.—Parnassus at present is divided into parti-coloured fields of several crops and separate hues, which, at a distance, give it the appearance of a corn country. Or it may be compared to a chess board, where a good deal depends upon the xtrous moves of booksellers. The

poets themselves have their respective attributes as distinct and settled as the nine Muses.—Walter Scott should never be painted without the Herald's Office in the back ground, at least when he sits as a Poet. Lord Byron should be represented dining in state, upon his own heart, before a numerous and delighted assembly. Mr. Moore should be drawn with a rose in one hand, and a bulbul perched on the other. Mr. Crabbe, sweeping a dirty garret, and shaking his head philosophically over every stain in the floor, while a volume of Malthus peeps out of his pocket.—Campbell, clearing Johnson's Dictionary of inelegant words, until it is reduced within the compass of twelve pages. Mr. Wilson, pulling forth laurel branches from an hospital window, and Dr. Mead looking at him in astonishment. Mr. Southey, crowned with a paper cap made out of his earlier productions. Mr. Hogg, seeing Satan's Invisible World through a Scotch mist; and Mr. Wordsworth, accompanied by the Solitary, inviting them all to take an excursion with him to refresh and vary their ideas.

Scotsman.

The best German poem produced this year is printed in the *Urania*, an almanac for 1818. The title of this piece, which is in three cantos, is, *Die Bezauberte Rose*—the Enchanted Rose. Brockhaus, the publisher, in April 1816, offered three poetical prizes for a romantic tale, a poetical epistle, and an Idyl. The above mentioned piece, by Ernest Schurtze, obtained the prize of fifty ducats in the first class. It is written in the manner of Wieland's Oberon, except that the stanzas are more regular; the whole is more delicate, and, as it were, of pure ethereal texture. It combines all the magic tones of melody. The publisher has announced a separate edition of this poem, on which he designs to bestow every possible typographic and chalcographic embellishment. The young poet died at Celle, in the Hanoverian dominions, in his 28th year, a few days after receiving intelligence of the success of his performance, and just as he was preparing to set out for Italy. He contracted the disease which proved fatal, during the siege of Hamburg in 1813, when he served as a volunteer in the Jägers.

Mr. Montgomery has a new volume of poems nearly ready for the press, entitled *Greenland and other poems.*

Ed. Mag

LEGISLATION.

Algiers. Bastinado for Marriage.—The plague having horribly depopulated Algiers, the new dey has commanded, that all the unmarried men above twenty years of age should be conducted to the public square, and amply gratified with the bastinado, to give them a desire for wedlock. This is the prelude to a new empire of women, which is about to be established among these barbarians; and it must be allowed that the education of the young men in this way has commenced even before marriage. *Lit. Pen.*

STATISTICS.

Resurrection of Moscow.—An official table, printed in the Gazette of Petersburg, has been published at Moscow, of the number of dwelling houses destroyed by the conflagration in 1812, and now rebuilt. The stone houses before the burning amounted to 2,567, those of wood, to 6,591, making in all 9,158. There remained standing 526 stone buildings, 2,400 wooden houses, making a total of 2,926. There have been newly rebuilt 3,137 stone houses, and wooden ones 5,531, making a total of 8,668. It appears from this that the number of houses in general, and particularly that of stone houses, is very much increased. The city counts at present 11,314 dwelling houses. The re-establishment of the shops and magazines has proceeded less rapidly. There were of these before the burning 8,521; 1,368 remained standing; and there have been rebuilt 5,544, making the total number at present amount to 6,912. The present population of this city amounts to 312,000. *ib.*

OBITUARY.

The truth and merit of the following tribute, equally with the notice due, in gratitude to the memory of one of the distinguished heroes of the Revolution, induce us to rescue it from the fate that usually befalls the generality of fugitive pieces.

DIED—In the 61st year of his age, on the 25th of March last, at the house of a friend, on Cumberland Island, Georgia, on his return from the West-Indies to his native state, Virginia, Major General HENRY LEE, a conspicuous officer in the Revolutionary Army.

He entered as a captain of cavalry, in the Virginia Line, at the age of 19, in which situation he soon commanded the respect and attention of his country, by his active and daring enterprize, and the confidence of the illustrious commander in chief of the military forces of the United States; a confidence which continued through life. He was rapidly promoted to the rank of Major, and soon after, to that of lieutenant colonel commandant of a separate legionary corps. While major, he planned and executed the celebrated attack on the enemy's post at Paulus Hook, opposite to the city of New York, their head quarters; surprized and took the garrison, under the eye of the British army and navy, and safely conducted his prisoners into the American lines, many miles distant from the post taken. There are few enterprizes to be found on military record, equal in hazard or difficulty, or conducted with more consummate skill and daring courage. It was too, accomplished without loss; filled the camp of the enemy with shame and astonishment; and shed an unfading lustre on the American arms. Sometime after, he accompanied general Greene to the southern department of the United States, subsequent to the memorable and disastrous battle of Camden, which reduced under the power of the enemy the three states of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The many brilliant achievements which he performed in that difficult and arduous war, under this celebrated and consummate commander, it is not necessary to enumerate; they are so many illustrious monuments of American courage and prowess, which, in all future ages will be the theme of historical praise—of grateful recollection by his countrymen, and of ardent imitation by every brave and patriotic soldier. Those states were recovered from the enemy. The country enjoys in peace, independence and liberty, the benefits of his useful services. All that remains to him is a grave, and the glory of his deeds.

At the close of the revolutionary war, he returned to the walks of civil life. He was often a member of the Legislature of the state of Virginia, one of its delegates to Congress under the confederation, and one of the convention which adopted the present constitution

of the United States, and which he supported; three years governor of the state, and afterwards a representative in the Congress of the United States, under the present organization.

While governor of Virginia, he was selected by President Washington to command the army sent to quell the insurrection which had been excited from untoward and erroneous impressions in the western counties of Pennsylvania, in which he had the felicity to bring to order and obedience the misguided inhabitants without shedding the blood of one fellow citizen. He possessed this peculiar characteristic as a military commander, of being always careful of the health and lives of his soldiers, never exposing them to unnecessary toils or fruitless hazards; always keeping them in readiness for useful and important enterprizes. Every public station to which he was called he filled with dignity and propriety.

In private life he was kind, hospitable, and generous. Too ardent in the pursuit of his objects—too confident in others, he wanted that prudence which is necessary to guard against imposition and pecuniary losses, and accumulate wealth. Like many other illustrious commanders and patriots he died poor.

He has left behind him a valuable historical work, entitled "Memoirs of the War in the Southern Department of the United States," in which the difficulties and privations endured by the patriotic army employed in that quarter—their courage and enterprize, and the skill and talents of their faithful, active, and illustrious commander, are displayed in never-fading colours; a work, to use the language of the publishers, by the perusal of which 'the patriot will be always delighted, the statesman informed, and the soldier instructed; which bears in every part the ingenuous stamp of a patriot soldier; and cannot fail to interest all who desire to understand the causes, and to know the difficulties of our memorable struggle. The facts may be relied on, "all of which he saw, and part of which he was."'

Fortune seems to have conducted him, at the close of his life, almost to the tomb of Greene, and his bones may now repose by the side of those of his beloved chief; friends in life, united in

death, and partners in a never dying fame.

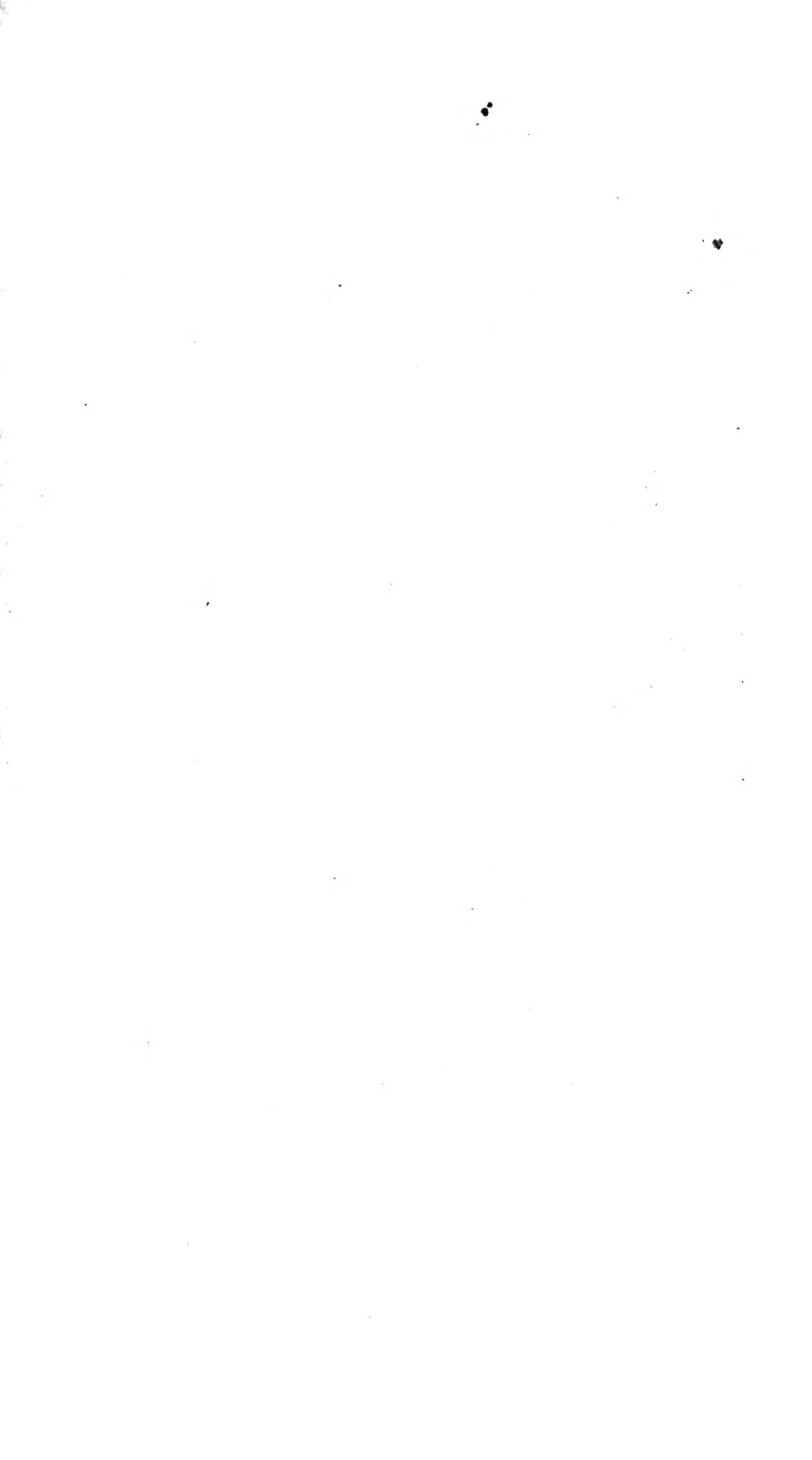
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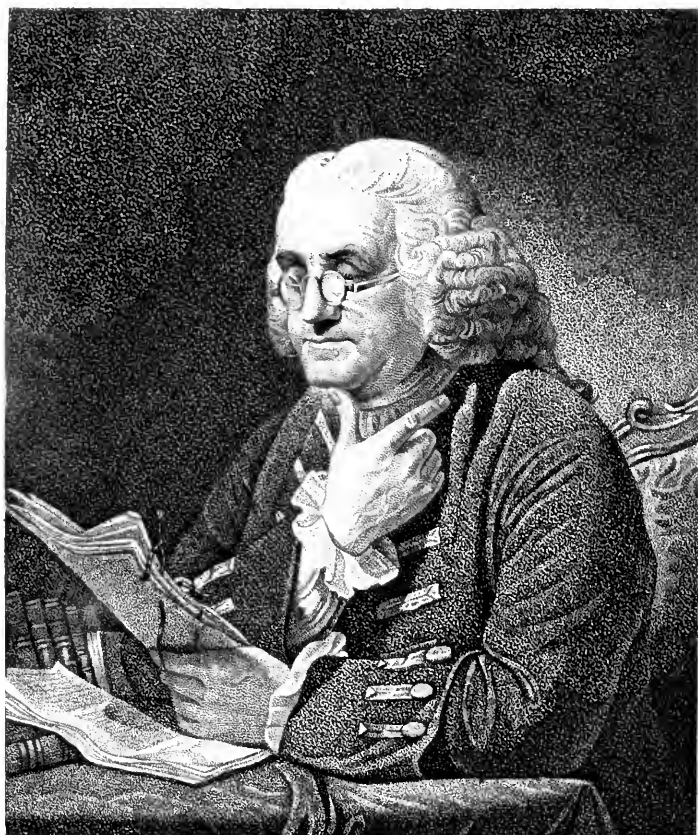
DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

It is well known that, some time since, Mr. John Binns, of this city, announced his intended publication of a splendid edition of this national *magna charta*, pledging himself to employ in the work such materials and skill as should reflect credit upon the state of manufacture, and of the arts, in this country. In pursuance of which, we find, that a considerable expense has been incurred, incident to the necessary arrangements, and that every requisite is in progress to give dignity and effect to the execution of the design. Under circumstances less peculiar than these, it is customary not to interfere, but according to courtesy, and the rules of the trade in this country, to await the accomplishment of a work undertaken, and not to counteract it. This practice, it is remarked with regret, has been departed from in a recent instance—proposals for a similar undertaking having been circulated by a Mr. Tyler.

The public interests, far from being promoted, are likely to suffer by such a proceeding, and we would impress upon the minds of the community the impolicy of giving currency to rival editions in general. When a publisher finds his ground infringed upon, the natural consequence will be, to damp his zeal, paralyze his exertions, or, if he persevere, to induce the covering of a detriment by a less spirited performance. The ordinary tendency is, to enhance the price, and diminish the value of a publication—effects produced by restricting the number of copies to a quantity considerably less than would have been published without such interference, since the fewer the number of copies thrown off, as it is termed, the greater is the original cost of each, and it is likely that, oftentimes, less justice will be done to the public in the end.

Just and liberal sentiments have been expressed on this occasion by most of our editors of newspapers, (and we were gratified to perceive those foremost who in politics are decidedly opposed to Mr. Binns) concurring in terms of animadversion upon the conduct in question, which, it is hoped will induce Mr. Tyler to abandon his project.





IS JUSTLY CALLED THE "GREAT BOOK"

and is the only one of its kind
in the world. It is the only one
of its kind in the world.

THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

JUNE, 1818.

ART. I.—*Memoirs of the life and writings of Benjamin Franklin*, &c. Written by himself to a late period, and continued to the time of his death by his grandson, William Temple Franklin. Now first published from the original MSS. Quarto. London 1818.

THE readers of this journal may not have forgotten, that we introduced to their notice in our 53d No., the volume of the correspondence of Franklin, published at London, somewhat more than a twelvemonth ago. It formed the second of a series of three quartos, of which the one we now announce is the first, although postponed in the order of publication, for reasons with which we are unacquainted. Many years had elapsed, since the appearance of any work of deeper interest to these states, than the volume of the Correspondence. It should have been immediately reprinted in this country, in a comparatively cheap form, by those who hold the American copy-right. The delay, in this instance, would seem to be a part of that fatality or spell, which so long hung over the manuscripts of our greatest philosopher and diplomatist.

In looking at the title-page of the present volume, no inquisitive critic can fail to be struck with the phrase—*now first published* from the original manuscripts—that is, nearly thirty years after the death of the illustrious author, although during the whole of this interval, almost every press in Europe and America, was open to the possessor. The editor of the first London edition of Franklin's works, suggests in his preface—as early as 1792,—his extreme surprise, that the continuation of the Memoirs, interesting as they were, should so long have been withheld from the public. In another London edition, of 1806, of the same work, it is roundly stated, that an ignominious bargain for the suppression of Franklin's papers, had been struck between his grandson and the British government; and it is added, that previous to this bargain, arrangements had been made to publish them in three quarto volumes;—precisely the plan now pursued. The Edinburgh Reviewers seem to admit, in the article on Franklin's works, contained in their No. for July 1806, the authenticity of the intelligence, and pass some severe strictures on their government, for so unworthy a proceeding.

Mr. Temple Franklin, sensible of the invidiousness of the still longer suppression, of which we have now to complain, devotes the greater part of the preface of the present volume, to an attempt at explanation. We are, for our part, disposed to reject the odious supposition, that one, such as he describes himself, 'bred under Franklin, and bearing his name,' could be 'bribed into an act of treachery to his memory,' by that government especially, on which, of all governments, a descendant of the philosopher, should have maintained a perpetual, and proud independence. We are, however, far from being satisfied with the 'justificatory plea,' which he offers, and are not willing to allow the credit, which he would take for discretion 'in keeping the relics, so long in his private custody.' They would, forsooth, if committed to the world during the French revolution, have furnished weapons, 'to designing partizans and infuriated zealots.' They were, therefore, 'suspended,' until 'the return of halcyon days, and a brightened horizon, when their true value might be appreciated.'

We would remark, in the first place, that it is not quite consistent in the editor, to represent himself as swayed by apprehensions of the sort, and in the same breath, to deride them as preposterous when ascribed to the British ministry. He sneers at the idea of that ministry 'being afraid of this arsenal of paper;' of 'an enlightened government being weak enough, to be frightened by the posthumous works of a philosopher.' And why not the government, as well as himself, who was not half so deeply interested in the consequences which he affects to have dreaded?

We reprobate as strongly as we can, the anarchical spirit and destructive disorders, of the first years of the French revolution: we should have been sorry to see fresh aliment provided for them, in any shape. But, we cannot, without an effort, admit the bare possibility of a serious apprehension on his side, that it would be found in the genuine memoirs and works of Franklin, although we can conceive, why the British administration might have deprecated the publication of them, at that crisis. Most of the political tracts of Franklin, and a pretty full and accurate history of his political career and opinions, were, many years ago, arranged and published by the 'literary speculators,' whom our editor would fain stigmatise, but to whose industry, whatever may have been their motives, the world is considerably indebted. In the additions which he has made to their compilations, we cannot perceive, with all our sagacity, a stronger tendency to animate 'anarchists in their wild career,' or 'to rekindle the dying embers of national animosity.' And we may venture to predict, with confidence, that nothing more formidable in this respect, will be detected in the selection of political, philosophical, and miscellaneous writings, which is to make up the third quarto.

Franklin was, indeed, an implacable enemy of oppression and tyranny, in whatever guise; he incited to independence, colonies entitled and prepared to be free. But he stood pre-eminent as the foe of anarchy, misrule and disorder of every kind; he detest-

ed all unnecessary violence and wanton bloodshed; he would have proscribed, in war and revolution, all courses of a doubtful morality, such as were, and still are, unhappily, pursued by general consent. His example and writings were more fitted to repress the intemperate spirit and convulsive activity of the *times* and *seasons*, of which his grandson speaks, than likely to be perverted to factious and sanguinary purposes. If ‘men of opposite sentiments,’ could not then dwell upon them, ‘without painful recollections,’ they must also, have been awakened to very salutary reflections and contrite resolutions. And here, we would repeat generally from the *Edinburgh Review*, ‘as to any anecdotes or observations, that might give offence to individuals, it should always be remembered, that public functionaries are the property of the public, that their character belongs to history and posterity, and that it is equally absurd and discreditable, to think of suppressing (or suspending), any portion of the evidence by which their merits must be ultimately determined.’

It must be mere *badinage* on the part of the editor, when he tells us of the arrival of the halcyon days, necessary for the perception of the true value of Franklin’s literary remains; of what his grandfire would have prescribed, had he anticipated the scenes, &c. and of Horace’s maxim of nine years delay for a finished performance, which has, truly, much to do with *posthumous* papers. In treating of Franklin’s works, in our 53d number, we mentioned a letter of Mr. Temple Franklin, dated March 18th 1807, and published at that period in the *Argus*, an English newspaper of Paris. In that letter, addressed purposely to the editor of the *Argus*, he stoutly denies any collusion between him and the British government, for the suppression of his grandfather’s manuscripts. He asserts, moreover, that he had offered the copy-right to some of the most noted booksellers, who refused to publish the work, even at their own expense; and that he had abstained from publishing them himself, on account of the considerable cost. We are utterly at a loss to reconcile the tenor of the letter, with that of his present preface wherein he pleads a magnanimous philanthropy, as the motive of his inaction, and relates, that to have committed the papers earlier to the press, would have been more to his pecuniary advantage; that he had endured the opprobrium of the charge of venality, without complaint, as beneath his notice, and suffered it to be repeated, without being goaded into an explanation!

On the whole, then, we confess ourselves to be of the number of those ‘contracted minds,’ who think that the world has sustained real injury by the ‘suspension’ of these memoirs, and who are ‘querulously disposed,’ to censure that suspension. On many accounts we cannot pardon it. A great wrong has been done, in the denial of the incalculable gratification, which they would have afforded, to the many eminent and estimable personages, friends and acquaintance of Franklin, his coadjutors in the cause of freedom; his colleagues in the ministry of sound political, and physical sci-

ence; who have died in the interval during which his papers were kept in custody.'

To pass from the editor to a more interesting subject—the volume of the Life.

In some points of view, it is not of as much attraction or importance, as that of the Correspondence. The major part of it, however, is highly entertaining and instructive. All that is new to the world, of the composition of Franklin, is equally characteristic, both as to sentiment and diction, with what had been already printed. The account of his life, brought down to the year 1730, which has been universally read in this country and England, is but a translation of a French version of a transcript of the autographical manuscript. It is now printed literally from this manuscript, and occupies fifty-seven pages of the volume under consideration. It is more precious to the world, and creditable to the writer, as it came from his own hands; but the garb which it had received, was by no means disreputable. The phraseology of the translation, is often the same as that of Franklin; sometimes more polished, and his grandson, in alluding to it disparagingly, commits an injustice; yet, favourably as we think of it, we would not be understood to mean that any pen could furnish an equivalent for the style of Franklin; which, beyond any other perhaps, illustrates the remark of Gibbon, that style is the image of character.*

The editor has divided the volume into five parts, and the account of which we have just spoken, constitutes the first. The second consists of the continuation of the auto-biography, to the year 1757, and extends to the 133th page. Its tone is loftier, as the writer becomes more involved in the business of life, and enters upon the management of important affairs. All is natural and easy; the narrative itself conveys lessons of practical wisdom, when the ever-vigilant and anxious philanthropist does not, as he delights to do, stop to frame and inculcate them. We have all the ingredients, which we are entitled to expect from the character of his genius and pursuits:—Sprightly anecdotes; pregnant maxims; historical details, that must be always interesting to Americans; number and variety in the persons introduced, most of whom are not without a portion of fame. It is impossible to be more lively, unaffected, and happy, than our philosopher is, in his representation both of men and things; or to be more successful in excluding from the mind of the reader, all idea of egotism on the part of the writer, even where he is more immediately the hero of the tale. The diction of the continuation has,—with more fulness and dignity,—the same qualities of facility, simplicity, perspicuity, and strength by which all his writings are distinguished.

It is matter of permanent regret, that Franklin did not, conformably to his declared intention, bring down his narrative to the last stage of his existence. Much light is, indeed, shed in the volume of the Correspondence upon his negotiations and connexions during his residence in France: but nothing can compensate for the edification and pleasure which would have been yielded by a

* Buffon says also—*Le style est l'homme.*

regular history of them, digested by himself, at a time when possessing still, unimpaired, his fine faculties and amiable temper, he had, as it were, filled up the measure of human judgment and experience. His grandson has attempted to complete his biography, 'with chronological precision,' by means of the letters and loose papers of his venerable relative; of Dr. Stuber's continuation, and other adventitious helps. He has given very few proofs of industry or skill in the execution of his task. The subject, however, has, in itself, a powerful attraction for an American, and the separate relations of particular events left by Franklin, which the editor has interspersed, do not belie their origin. Of these the most considerable are—a masterly exposition, embracing twenty pages, of the affair of the letters of Hutchinson and Oliver; and a full account, written at sea in 1775, of his negotiations in England with regard to the misunderstandings between that country and her colonies. The sixty pages which these negotiations occupy, will, probably, fix the attention of the politician more than any other portion of the volume.

The editor proceeds himself, in his fourth division, with the leading political events of our revolution, in which Franklin had a share, from the period of his return to this country in 1775, to that of his embarkation for France in 1776, as minister plenipotentiary of the American congress. He accompanied him on this mission, and remained near his person during the whole of his absence of eight years and an half. It was in treating of this memorable term that he might have laid aside the character of the chronicler, to assume that of the biographer; and we should not have been disposed to chide, had he taken Boswell as his model. But, for his own contingent, we have only a gazette of public occurrences, enriched and enlivened, however, by a number of the private letters of Franklin, and some extracts from his private journals, which bear distinctly the impress of an understanding confessedly unique.

We are sorely disappointed that his grandson who enjoyed unrivalled opportunities of knowledge, has not undertaken to display his relative in his domestic hours—to paint the private man with whom, in proportion as we admire the philosopher and statesman, we are the more desirous of being made intimately acquainted. We naturally wish to learn what were his social amusements and occupations at Paris; to be particularly introduced to his literary and scientific connexions, the most brilliant of the age. If his secretary had himself treasured up none of the sallies of his wit, of his pungent repartees, or teeming apothegms, he might at least have gleaned for us the anecdotes and adventures which float as tradition in the French metropolis. In the 'Supplement' to the life, he has a distinct head of 'Anecdotes relative to Dr. Franklin,'—which amount in number to *seven!* and which, though good in themselves, have been long familiar to all the world. In the same supplement we find a letter from Mr. Jefferson to Dr. Smith of Philadelphia, wherein that accomplished personage says, that he

could then relate (but they were not wanted for the occasion) a number of those *bon mots* with which Franklin was used to charm every society in Paris, *having heard many of them*, &c. It was certainly easy for our editor to collect the same, and incumbent upon him to give them place in his quarto. A separate department of anecdotes, of *two* pages, wears a strange air in the biography of a man who was, for more than three generations, in the midst of the bustle of the most interesting communities—who was almost unequalled in the shrewdness and jocularly of his wit, and whose *bon mots* were not mere effusions of pleasantry, or baits for admiration, but, generally, and designedly, the vehicles of a striking moral.

The fifth part of the Life is appropriated to Franklin's career after his final return to America. The most remarkable of the productions of his own pen here given, are three of his speeches in the immortal Convention, which have all the excellence of his best manner; and the 'Comparison of the conduct of the ancient Jews and the antifederalists of America,' which is not to be surpassed in ingenuity and point. His relative seems to have contented himself in this fifth part, with what the gazettes and pamphlets of the day could supply. Every reader must lament that he did not take pains to collect the personal details which the surviving friends of Franklin, on this side of the Atlantic, were able to contribute. The last five years of his existence were marked by great events, and until the last moment, he retained, to use the language of his physician, the fullest and clearest possession of his uncommon mental abilities. He bore a part in the principal political movements at home, and he anxiously attended, no doubt, to those of Europe. His death happened in April 1790, when the most portentous of all revolutions, that of France, had already made some progress. There was certainly no one, not a Frenchman, to whom, for obvious reasons, it could have been of more interest than to Franklin, and no statesman about whose opinions and feelings respecting it, as mere matter of history, we would naturally be more curious. Nevertheless, his present editor says not a word of them. We shall not stop to inquire, whether this vexatious silence is owing to his accustomed *nonchalance*, or to his morbid sensibility with regard to that 'scene of perturbation.'

The characters and eulogies reprinted in the supplement above mentioned, serve as a recapitulation of the life and character of Franklin. His countrymen must delight in the decided testimony borne to his supremacy over his age, by some of its most distinguished ornaments and instructors. The letters of Mr. Jefferson and Dr. Priestley concerning him, well deserve to be embodied with his works. Condorcet's eulogium, from which large extracts are made, is the most comprehensive, able, and eloquent sketch of his life and labours that has appeared. The oration of Dr. Smith contains some valuable particulars of his life, but cannot be recommended for judgment in the style, or choice of topics.

Our readers will understand, from what has been said, that, in general, the present volume not only does not provide that 'Life of Franklin,' which is wanted for the world, but that it is far from presenting all the materials for the purpose which were fairly to be expected from his grandson. It is, looking to the editorship, an awkward, imperfect compilation. Several papers are inserted which properly belong to the third volume announced, and are not necessary as elucidations of the text of the life. To eke the ponderous quarto, the constitution of the United States is introduced into the appendix; and there are, throughout, similar indications of mere book-making industry. All this is irremissible when we consider what was due from the editor to the memory of his relative; the responsibility to the public, imposed upon him by his character and situation, and that long postponement of which he might, at least, have profited for the more perfect execution of his sacred trust.

Having thus, as we thought ourselves bound to do, inquired into the management of the editor, and made a cursory survey of the contents of this volume, we will proceed to notice some of them more minutely, and to quote from the narrative of Franklin as liberally as is compatible with our limits.

The particulars of his early life, related with so much felicity in his first memoir, are so familiar to the public, that we may be dispensed from dwelling upon them. In the commencement of the second part of this volume, there is a long and elegant letter from Mr. Benjamin Vaughan to Franklin, to which we would refer for a just picture of the merits and influences of such a piece of biography. We were somewhat surprised to find in the *Edinburgh Review*, the objection, that it contains 'too many trifling details and anecdotes of obscure individuals.' These details, which are, in fact, indivisibly connected with Franklin's own history, form its strongest attraction for that humble class of youth to whom the memoir is calculated to be most useful. Besides, in the community to which the author belonged, the individuals in question, though tradesmen, were not *obscure*. Many of them attained in the end, like himself, an elevated rank in society. Such details, moreover, greatly enhance the value and interest of his work, in rendering it an exact delineation of the condition and manners of a new people. A most striking fact contained in it, and one that exemplifies the early intellectual and moral superiority of the mechanical classes of the English colonies over those of any other part of the world, is, that the most extensive of the present scientific and literary institutions of Philadelphia, originated with young tradesmen not of the highest order. Of such materials was, in great part, the club of which Franklin discourses with so much satisfaction, and of which he says, that it was the best school of philosophy, morality, and politics, which existed in the province. The fifty persons who composed the whole list of the first subscribers to the scheme of the Philadelphia library, were mostly, as he relates, of the same vocation; and the library, he adds, was the mother of all the North Ameri-

can libraries; 'which, making the common tradesmen and farmers as intelligent as some gentlemen from other countries, contributed in some degree to the stand so generally made throughout the colonies in defence of their privileges.'

Franklin resumed the narrative of his life at Passy, near Paris in 1784, pursued it there through a few pages only, took it up again in 1788 after his return, and appears to have desisted, (to our infinite regret,) just as he reached the most interesting term of his career. He sets out, in the continuation, at the year 1730, and concludes at his arrival in London in 1757. He commences with an account of the establishment of the Philadelphia library, upon which he dwells *con amore*, contrasting exultingly its small beginning in 1730, with what the institution was when he wrote. We may well indulge a similar feeling in reflecting what it is at present, and how far we are now removed from the state of things which he describes, in respect to literary means in general: 'There was not a good bookseller's shop in any of the colonies to the southward of Boston; those who loved reading, were obliged to send for their books from England,' &c.

Aware of the truth of the observation of his friend Vaughan, that his biography, in inducing men to spend lives like his own, might be worth all Plutarch's lives put together; he details minutely his early habits of industry and frugality; his expedients for confirming them, and the prosperity which they induced. It is curious to contemplate the domestic economy of the master-printer, afterwards the representative of a nation, and the companion of kings.

'We have an English proverb that says,'

"He that would thrive,

"Must ask his wife;"

it was lucky for me that I had one as much disposed to industry and frugality as myself. She assisted me cheerfully in my business, folding and stitching pamphlets, tending shop, purchasing old linen rags for the paper-makers, &c. We kept no idle servants, our table was plain and simple, our furniture of the cheapest. For instance, my breakfast was for a long time bread and milk, (no tea) and I ate it out of a two-penny earthen porringer, with a pewter spoon: but mark how luxury will enter families, and make a progress in spite of principle; being called one morning to breakfast, I found it in a china-bowl, with a spoon of silver. They had been bought for me without my knowledge by my wife, and had cost her the enormous sum of three and twenty shillings; for which she had no other excuse or apology to make, but that she thought *her* husband deserved a silver-spoon and china-bowl, as well as any of his neighbours. This was the first appearance of plate and china in our house, which afterwards, in the course of years as our wealth increased, augmented gradually to several hundred pounds in value.'

After resolving at this period to undertake to arrive at *moral perfection*, conceiving it to be an easy achievement, where there was a clear sense of right and wrong, he found, on trial, that the task was of extreme difficulty, and makes the following sound remarks in reference to the inadequacy of his efforts. 'I concluded

at length, that the mere speculative conviction that it was our interest to be completely virtuous, was not sufficient to prevent our slipping, and that the contrary habits must be broken, and good ones acquired and established, before we can have any dependance on a steady uniform rectitude of conduct.' To fortify himself accordingly, he contrived a particular method on the exposition of which he bestows several pages. He selected thirteen moral virtues, including all that occurred to him at the time as necessary or desirable; arranged them in the order in which the acquisition of one might facilitate that of the others; annexed to each a precept expressing the extent of its meaning with him, and to acquire the *habitude*, gave to each separately a week of attention, 'leaving the others to their ordinary chance.' Every evening he noted down the offences against it, and in general the faults of the day. He persevered in this plan of 'self-examination,' for a considerable time, and observes, 'that though he found himself fuller of faults than he had imagined, he had the satisfaction of seeing them diminish.' We regret that we have not space for his developments of the scheme, which is alike ingenious and *practicable*, and evidently intended, in the recital, not for his own glorification, but for the imitation of his readers. In nothing, on no occasion, was Franklin a visionary or a canter. In this instance, he proceeds with perfect openness. 'My list of virtues,' says he, 'contained at first but twelve, but a quaker friend having kindly informed me that I was generally thought proud, I determined to endeavour to cure myself of this vice or folly among the rest, and I added *humility* to my list, giving an extensive meaning to the word. I cannot boast of much success in acquiring the *reality* of this virtue, but I had a good deal with regard to the appearance. In truth, there is perhaps no one of our natural passions so hard to subdue as *pride*; struggle with it, mortify it, it is still alive; and will every now and then show itself. It will be seen, perhaps, often in this history. For, even if I could conceive that I had completely overcome it, I should, probably, be *proud* of my *humility*.'

He proposed at the same period, to write a treatise, to be called *The Art of Virtue*, which was to contain a comment on each virtue, showing the means and manner of obtaining it, the advantages of possessing it, and the mischiefs attending its opposite vice. He would have particularly endeavoured to convince young persons that no qualities are so likely to make a poor man's fortune, as those of *frugality* and *integrity*. He never enjoyed leisure—and we scarcely need suggest how much the circumstance is to be lamented—to execute this project. He descants upon another of the same noble aim, which he styles *great and extensive*, and of the feasibility of which he expresses his fixed opinion, though he was denied the opportunity of attempting it, at first by his multifarious occupations, and finally by the decay of his strength. The history of it concludes with an observation which has been, of late years, in more than one instance splendidly exemplified, and can never be too often repeated for the public. 'I was not discoura-

ged by the seeming magnitude of the undertaking, as I have always thought that one man of tolerable abilities may work great changes, and accomplish great affairs among mankind, if he first forms a good plan; and cutting off all amusements and other employments that would divert his attention, makes the execution of the same plan his sole study and business.'

In 1732 Franklin first published *Poor Richard's Almanack*, which he continued twenty-five years. At that period the common people bought scarcely any other kind of book, and in making it a source of amusement and instruction to them, he rendered it one of considerable emolument to himself. His newspaper was also steadily employed as a means, not merely of procuring wealth, but of enlightening the judgment and strengthening the morals of his countrymen. In our article on the volume of his Correspondence, we made an extract from it, containing some wholesome counsel to the editors of newspapers. We ask their attention likewise to the following passage from his Narrative. 'In the conduct of my newspaper I carefully excluded all libelling and personal abuse, which is of late years become so disgraceful to our country. Whenever I was solicited to insert any thing of that kind, my answer was, that having contracted with my subscribers to furnish them with what might be either useful or entertaining, I could not fill their papers with private altercation with which they had no concern, without doing them manifest injustice. Now many of our printers make no scruple of gratifying the malice of individuals (and their own), by false accusations of the fairest characters among ourselves; and are, moreover, so indiscreet as to print scurrilous reflections on the government of neighbouring states,' &c.

It was only in 1733, when he was twenty-seven years old, that Franklin began to study languages. He soon became a tolerable proficient in the French, Italian and Spanish, and then applied himself with some success to the Latin, of which he had mastered the rudiments in early youth. He ascribes the comparative facility of his reinitiation, to the acquaintance he had formed with the other tongues, and infers that the usual mode of beginning with the Latin in the education of boys, must be injudicious. In looking to their success in the common business of life, which it is evident from the strain of his reasoning on the subject he had chiefly in view, his opinion may be well founded; but a thorough linguist can be most readily formed—perhaps only—on the old plan. Franklin was no scholar, and did not well understand how the cause of learning was to be managed, for the objects—which, however, he had always deeply at heart—of its real advancement and perfection. Nor was he strictly a man of science. Yet, he enlarged the boundaries and raised the dignity of human knowledge by his grand discoveries in physics; and as a writer he has shown, together with our incomparable hero of the Revolution, General Washington, that classical attainments are not indispensable to the production of the finest models of style. It should be remembered, however, that they

are exceptions—the only exceptions with which we are acquainted,—and the circumstance is a sort of national triumph.

In 1736, Franklin was chosen clerk of the general assembly of Pennsylvania,—his first promotion as he calls it in his *Narrative*. The choice was annual, and the year following, a new member made a long speech in opposition to his re-election. We copy what he relates on this occasion, because it is every way characteristic.

‘As the place was highly desirable for me, on many accounts, I did not like the opposition of this new member, who was a gentleman of fortune and education, with talents that were likely to give him in time great influence in the house, which indeed afterwards happened. I did not, however, aim at gaining his favour by paying any servile respect to him, but after some time took this other method. Having heard that he had in his library a certain very scarce and curious book, I wrote a note to him, expressing my desire of perusing that book, and requesting that he would do me the favour of lending it to me for a few days. He sent it immediately; and I returned it in about a week with another note, expressing strongly my sense of the favour. When we next met in the house, he spoke to me, (which he had never done before,) and with great civility; and he ever after manifested a readiness to serve me on all occasions, so that we became great friends, and our friendship continued to his death. This is another instance of the truth of an old maxim I had learned, which says, ‘he that has once done you a kindness, will be more ready to do you another, than he whom you yourself have obliged.’ And it shows how much more profitable it is prudently to remove, than to resent, return, and continue inimical proceedings.’

In 1737, our philosopher was appointed post master of Philadelphia. His salary was small, but the place increased the circulation of his newspaper, and the number of advertisements, so as to be the occasion of affording him ‘a considerable income.’ It was about this time, when his circumstances had become easy, that he first turned his attention to public affairs, beginning, as he states, with small matters. No man ever displayed more activity and earnestness in promoting social comfort,—in devising salutary municipal regulations, and multiplying liberal institutions. He celebrates his successes in this way with more complacency than his triumphs in politics and science. It is strongly in favour of the excellence of his nature, that he should feel this preference, after he had attained to an elevation at which most minds would be indifferent enough to the fame of having proposed and brought about fire companies and a regular night watch. He took the lead not only in these improvements, but in those of paving, cleaning, and lighting the streets of Philadelphia; in the establishment of the Hospital, the University, and the Philosophical Society. His account of the origin of these institutions is of the most lively relish. In 1742, he invented the open stove which bears his name, and has benefitted so large a portion of the North American people. The proprietary-governor offered to give him an exclusive patent for it, but he declined it, from a generous principle which he says

ever weighed with him on such occasions—‘*That as we enjoy great advantages from the invention of others, we should be glad of a opportunity to serve others by any invention of ours—freely and gratuitously.*’ In adverting to the minuteness of some of his municipal cares, he makes suggestions which to many may appear of rather too homely a philosophy, but which are, nevertheless, like other of his ideas of a similar aspect, grounded in reason and true benevolence. ‘Human felicity is produced not so much by great pieces of good fortune that seldom happen, as by little advantages that occur every day. Thus if you teach a poor young man to shave himself and keep his razor in order, you may contribute more to the happiness of his life, than in giving him a thousand guineas. This sum may soon be spent, the regret only remaining of having foolishly consumed it, but in the other case he escapes the frequent vexation of waiting for barbers, and of their sometimes dirty fingers, offensive breaths, and dull razors: he shaves when most convenient to him, and enjoys daily the pleasure of its being done with a good instrument.’

The community to which Franklin was thus daily rendering the most important services, was not insensible to the value of his talents and dispositions. ‘After,’ says he, ‘I had resigned all care of the printing office to an industrious and honest partner, the public now considering me as a man of leisure, laid hold of me for their purposes, every part of our civil government, and almost all at the same time imposing some duty upon me. The governor put me into the commission of the peace, the corporation chose me alderman, the citizens elected me to represent them in the assembly,’ &c.

When the French had joined the Spaniards against England, conceiving the province to be in danger, and seeing that the Quaker assembly could not be prevailed upon to pass a militia law, he suggested, and recommended in a pamphlet, the plan of a voluntary association for defence. It succeeded, and ten thousand signatures were soon obtained in the city and country. The officers of the Philadelphia regiment chose the author of the plan, for their colonel; but he declined the appointment. He then proposed a lottery to defray the expense of building batteries below the town. Some old cannon were brought from Boston, but these not being sufficient, orders were sent to London for more. Meanwhile Franklin, and two other members of the association, were sent to New York to borrow more cannon of governor Clinton. He relates the following anecdote of Clinton. ‘The governor at first refused us peremptorily, but at a dinner with his council, where there was a great drinking of Madeira wine, as the custom of that place then was, he softened by degrees, and said he would lend us six: after a few more bumpers he advanced to ten, and at length he very good-naturedly conceded eighteen. They were fine cannon, 18 pounders,’ &c.

The philosopher regularly took his turn of duty as a common soldier, in mounting guard at the batteries. In the assembly he

succeeded in carrying through a bill for establishing and disciplining a voluntary militia, and exerted himself indefatigably both in and out of the house, for the promotion of an effectual system of public defence. After the defeat of Braddock, of whose expedition he traces an interesting outline,* he did more than frame bills, and write essays on the subject of arming. 'While the several companies in the city and country were forming and learning their exercise, the governor prevailed with me to take charge of our north western frontier, which was infested by the enemy (Indians,) and provide for the defence of the inhabitants, by raising troops and building a line of forts. I undertook the military business, though I did not conceive myself well qualified for it. I had but little difficulty in raising men, having soon 560 under my command. My son was my aid-de-camp, and of great use to me.'

Having concentrated his force at Bethlem, and sent detachments to the upper and lower country, he marched hastily to Gnadenhut, where he threw up a stockade, without being molested by the Indians. The campaign is storied, and was no doubt, conducted in a gay mood, as the following anecdote will testify.

'We had for our chaplain a zealous Presbyterian minister, Mr. Beatty, who complained to me that the men did not generally attend his prayers and exhortations. When they enlisted they were promised, besides pay and provisions, a gill of rum a day, which was punctually served out to them, half in the morning, and the other half in the evening; and I observed they were punctual in attending to receive it: upon which I said to Mr. Beatty, 'it is perhaps below the dignity of your profession to act as steward of the rum; but if you were to distribute it out only just after prayers, you would have them all about you.' He liked the thought, undertook the task, and with the help of a few hands to measure out the liquor, executed it to satisfaction; and never were prayers more generally and more punctually attended. So that I think this method preferable to the punishment inflicted by some military laws for non-attendance on divine service.'

The forts were scarcely completed, when the governor and many members of the assembly, urgently recalled the new commander, to the business of that house. He returned at once, but had not yet reached the end of his military career. His tone on this subject is such, as to prove that he laid no undue stress upon his martial plume. 'Being returned to Philadelphia, I found the association went on with great success. The officers meeting, chose me the colonel of the regiment. I forget how many com-

* He gave Braddock the most important assistance in the outset, and made considerable pecuniary advances for the expedition, which were never refunded by the British government. Of Braddock himself he says, 'the general was, I think, a brave man; but he had too much self-confidence, too high an opinion of the validity of European troops, and too mean an one of both Americans and Indians. Captain Orme who was one of the generals' aid-de-camps, and being grievously wounded, was brought off with him, and continued with him to his death, which happened in a few days, told me that he was totally silent all the first day, and at night only said, '*who would have thought it!*' That he was silent again the following day, saying only at last, '*we shall better know how to deal with them another time!*' and died in a few minutes after!'

panies, but we paraded about 1200 well looking men, &c. The first time I reviewed my regiment, they accompanied me to my house, and would salute me with some rounds fired before my door, which shook down and broke several glasses of my electrical apparatus. And my new honour proved not much less brittle, for all our commissions were soon after broken by a repeal of the law in England.'

It is remarkable, with how much less minuteness and apparent self-congratulation he speaks of his electrical experiments and scientific halo, than of his economical improvements and moral habits. What has been said of his labours in the department of *physics*, is, however, eminently just; that they were all suggested by views of utility in the beginning, and were, without exception, applied to promote those views in the end. He allots but a few paragraphs, as it were incidentally, to 'an account of the rise and progress of his philosophical reputation,' some parts of which we proceed to transcribe.

'In 1746, being in Boston, I met there with a Dr. Spence, who was lately arrived from Scotland, and showed me some electrical experiments. They were imperfectly performed as he was not very expert; but being on a subject quite new to me, they equally surprised and pleased me. Soon after my return to Philadelphia, our library company received from Mr. Peter Collinson F. R. S. of London, a present of a glass tube, with some account of the use of it in making such experiments. I eagerly seized the opportunity of repeating what I had seen at Boston, and by much practice acquired great readiness in performing those also which we had an account of from England, adding a number of new ones. I say much practice, for my house was continually full for some time, with persons who came to see these new wonders. To divide a little this incumbrance among my friends, I caused a number of similar tubes to be blown in our glass-house, with which they furnished themselves, so that we had at length several performers.

'Obliged as we were to Mr. Collinson for the present of the tube, &c. I thought it right he should be informed of our success in using it, and wrote him several letters containing accounts of our experiments. He got them read in the Royal Society, where they were not at first thought worth so much notice as to be printed in their transactions. One paper which I wrote for Mr. Kinnersly, on the sameness of lightning with electricity, I sent to Mr. Mitchell, an acquaintance of mine, and one of the members also of that society; who wrote me word that it had been read, but was laughed at by the connoisseurs. The papers, however, being shown to Dr. Fothergill, he thought them of too much value to be stifled, and advised the printing of them. Mr. Collinson then gave them to Cave for publication, in his Gentleman's Magazine; but he chose to print them separately in a pamphlet, and Dr. Fothergill wrote the preface. Cave it seems judged rightly for his profession, for by the additions that arrived afterwards, they swelled to a quarto volume; which has had five editions, and cost him nothing for copy-money.

'It was, however, some time before those papers were much taken notice of in England. A copy of them happening to fall into the hands of the count de Buffon, (a philosopher deservedly of great reputation in

France, and indeed all over Europe,) he prevailed with monsieur Dubourg to translate them into French; and they were printed at Paris. The publication offended the abbé Nollet, preceptor in natural philosophy to the royal family, and an able experimenter, who had formed and published a theory of electricity, which then had the general vogue. He could not at first believe that such a work came from America, and said it must have been fabricated by his enemies at Paris to oppose his system. Afterwards, having been assured that there really existed such a person as Franklin at Philadelphia, (which he had doubted,) he wrote and published a volume of letters chiefly addressed to me, defending his theory, and denying the verity of my experiments, and of the positions deduced from them.*

Franklin never answered the abbé Nollet; but this was done for him, triumphantly, by a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Paris. His experiments were repeated in that capital with brilliant success;—the *Franklinian* system was quickly adopted, with unbounded admiration, throughout the continent of Europe; and the volume published by Cave, translated into nearly all its principal languages, and into the Latin. The *connoisseurs* of the Royal Society of London, who had *laughed at the idea* of the sameness of lightning with electricity, soon came to a sense of their error, and made amends to the *wonderful American*, by overwhelming him with honours and compliments. From this time all the learned societies of the world emulously sought permission to inscribe his name on their rolls. Many unavailing efforts were, however, made to deprive him of the repute of priority in his experiments and theory; so hard was it for Europe to admit that a colonist of Pennsylvania could outstrip her in the glorious research into the mysteries of nature. The spirit which animated these efforts is not yet extinct. We are not uncharitable in ascribing to it, in part, the invidious insinuation made in a late number of the Edinburgh Review, that Franklin, as a writer, was formed in Europe, and that no credit is, therefore, to be challenged by America, on the score of his style. He spent, in fact, but two years of his youth, between the age of eighteen and twenty, in England, in an obscure and untoward situation. He did not return to Europe until he had passed his fiftieth year. He had published, in the interval, the Letters on Electricity, ‘admirable for their luminous and graphical precision,’* and those moral exhortations which the same critics describe on another occasion, as ‘perfect models of popular eloquence,’—‘the finest specimens of a style *which had been but too little cultivated in Britain*,’ &c.†

Franklin was appointed one of the commissioners from Pennsylvania to join the congress of commissioners from the different colonies, which was assembled at Albany in 1754, by order of the British government, to confer with the chiefs of the six nations about their common defence in the French war then apprehended. On the subject of the celebrated plan of union, which he brought forward at this congress, he writes thus in his Continuation:

* Vol. 3, Edinburgh Review—Article on Franklin’s Works.

† Ibid.

‘In our way to Albany, I projected and drew up a plan for the union of all the colonies under one government, so far as might be necessary for defence, and other important general purposes. Being fortified by the approbation of gentlemen of great knowledge in public affairs, I ventured to lay it before congress. It then appeared that several of the commissioners had formed plans of the same kind. A previous question was first taken, whether an union should be established? which passed in the affirmative, unanimously. A committee was then appointed, one member from each colony, to consider the several plans and report. Mine happened to be preferred, and, with a few amendments, was accordingly reported. By this plan the general government was to be administered by a president general, appointed and supported by the crown, and a grand council to be chosen by the representatives of the people of the several colonies met in their respective assemblies. The debates upon it in congress went on daily, hand in hand with the Indian business. Many objections and difficulties were started; but, at length, they were all overcome, and the plan was unanimously agreed to, and copies ordered to be transmitted to the board of trade and to the assemblies of the several provinces. Its fate was singular:—the assemblies did not adopt it, as they all thought there was too much *prerogative* in it; and, in England, it was judged to have too much of the *democratic*.’

We cannot readily concur with our author in the opinion which he proceeds to give, that the execution of his plan would have obviated the contest between the colonies and the mother country. He afterwards describes her as not choosing to permit their union in the form proposed at Albany, ‘lest they should thereby grow too military and feel their own strength; suspicion and jealousy, even at this time, being entertained of them.’ Her reasons and suspicions were, we think, pretty just; for the plan had a direct tendency, in consolidating and organizing the strength of the colonies, to enable them to effect their independence with more ease; and, judging from her own national character, in the best part of which they so largely partook, Britain might have more than suspected that they would not long submit to any external dominion, after they saw themselves in a condition to shake it off. We are not quite sure that the intention of facilitating their emancipation did not lurk in the mind of Franklin. As early even as 1754, one of his extraordinary sagacity, and intimate knowledge of his countrymen, might well have had forebodings of the great crisis.

He was appointed deputy postmaster-general, in 1753, by commission from the postmaster-general in England, and had, in other respects, an interest in preserving the favour of those who could influence the British ministry. Nevertheless, he constantly and strenuously combated on the side of the assembly of Pennsylvania, in its struggles with the proprietary government. In speaking of governor Morris’s administration, he says, ‘it was a continual battle between him and the house. I had my share of it. I was put on every committee for answering his speeches and messages, and by the committee always desired to make the draughts. Our answers, as well as his messages, were often tart, and sometimes indecently abusive.’ When the assembly resolved, at length, to petition the

king against the proprietary, they appointed their champion, already the boast and delight of the whole country, to go over to England to present and support their petition. Enough has been written about the providential character, and inestimable consequences, of this choice, to preclude us from expatiating on its felicity. We may repeat, however, the solid reflection, that the example of the struggle in Pennsylvania for an equalization of burdens—the tone which Franklin assumed in his legislative papers and newspaper essays—the topics of general concern which he introduced into the discussion, and the broad principles of natural and constitutional right which he asserted—principles striking at the root of the subsequent pretensions of Britain—had no inconsiderable effect in preparing the North American people at large for resistance to those pretensions.

He is exceedingly entertaining in relation to the arrangements for his departure. The circumstances of the moment brought him into contact with the commander of the British forces, lord Loudon, in whose character *indecision* prevailed, to a degree, which would seem incredible, in the case of one who had reached so high and responsible a station. The anecdotes with which his conduct furnished Franklin, might pass for the inventions of a dramatic poet, aiming at the exemplification of that mischievous trait in its most ridiculous extravagance. ‘I wondered much,’ says our philosopher, ‘how such a man came to be intrusted with so important a business as the conduct of a great army; but having since seen more of the great world, and the means of obtaining, and motives for giving places and employments, my wonder is diminished!’

We have already made more extracts from the Continuation, than comports with the attention which we meant to give to the succeeding parts of the volume:—we must indulge ourselves in one more, to serve as a full specimen of the style of narration. It relates to a person of great consequence and celebrity in his day.

‘In 1739, arrived among us from Ireland, the reverend Mr. Whitefield, who had made himself remarkable there as an itinerant preacher. He was at first permitted to preach in some of our churches; but the clergy taking a dislike to him, soon refused him their pulpits, and he was obliged to preach in the fields. The multitude of all sects and denominations that attended his sermons were enormous, and it was a matter of speculation to me (who was one of the number) to observe the extraordinary influence of his oratory on his hearers; and how much they admired and respected him, notwithstanding his common abuse of them, by assuring them, they were naturally *half beasts and half devils*. It was wonderful to see the change soon made in the manners of our inhabitants. From being thoughtless or indifferent about religion, it seemed as if all the world were growing religious, so that one could not walk through the town in an evening without hearing psalms sung in different families of every street. And it being found inconvenient to assemble in the open air, subject to its inclemencies, the building of a house to meet in, was no sooner proposed, and persons appointed to receive contributions, but sufficient sums were soon received to procure the ground, and erect the building, which was one hundred feet long and seventy broad; and the work was carried on with such spirit as to

be finished in a much shorter time than could have been expected. Both house and ground were vested in trustees, expressly for the use of *any preacher of any religious persuasion*, who might desire to say something to the people at Philadelphia. The design in building not being to accommodate any particular sect, but the inhabitants in general; so that even if the mufti of Constantinople, were to send a missionary to preach Mahometanism to us, he would find a pulpit at his service.

‘Mr. Whitefield, on leaving us, went preaching all the way through the colonies to Georgia. The settlement of that province had lately been begun, but instead of being made with hardy industrious husbandmen accustomed to labour, the only people fit for such an enterprise, it was with families of broken shopkeepers, and other insolvent debtors; many of indolent and idle habits, taken out of the jails, who being set down in the woods, unqualified for clearing land, and unable to endure the hardships of a new settlement, perished in numbers, leaving many helpless children unprovided for. The sight of their miserable situation inspired the benevolent heart of Mr. Whitefield, with the idea of building an orphan-house there, in which they might be supported and educated. Returning northward, he preached up this charity, and made large collections: for his eloquence had a wonderful power over the hearts and purses of his hearers, of which I myself was an instance. I did not disapprove of the design, but as Georgia was then destitute of materials and workmen, and it was proposed to send them from Philadelphia at a great expense, I thought it would have been better to have built the house at Philadelphia, and brought the children to it. This I advised, but he was resolute in his first project, rejected my counsel, and I therefore refused to contribute. I happened soon after to attend one of his sermons. in the course of which, I perceived he intended to finish with a collection, and I silently resolved he should get nothing from me: I had in my pocket a handful of copper-money, three or four silver dollars, and five pistoles in gold; as he proceeded I began to soften, and concluded to give the copper. Another stroke of his oratory made me ashamed of that, and determined me to give the silver, and he finished so admirably, that I emptied my pocket wholly into the collector’s dish, gold and all! At this sermon there was also one of our club, who being of my sentiments respecting the building in Georgia, and suspecting a collection might be intended, had by precaution emptied his pockets before he came from home; towards the conclusion of the discourse, however, he felt a strong inclination to give, and applied to a neighbour who stood near him, to lend him some money for the purpose. The request was fortunately made to perhaps the only man in the company who had the firmness not to be affected by the preacher. His answer was, *‘At any other time, friend Hopkinson, I would lend to thee freely; but not now, for thee seems to me to be out of thy right senses.’*”

‘The last time I saw Mr. Whitefield, was in London, when he consulted me about his orphan-house concern, and his purpose of appropriating it to the establishment of a college.

‘He had a loud and clear voice, and articulated his words so perfectly that he might be heard and understood at a great distance; especially as his auditories observed the most perfect silence. He preached one evening from the top of the court-house steps, which are in the middle of Market-street, and on the west side of Second-street, which crosses it at right angles. Both streets were filled with his hearers to a considerable distance: being among the hindmost in Market-street, I had the

curiosity to learn how far he could be heard, by retiring backwards down the street towards the river, and I found his voice distinct till I came near Front-street, when some noise in that street obscured it. Imagining then a semicircle, of which my distance should be the radius, and that it was filled with auditors, to each of whom I allowed two square feet; I computed that he might well be heard by more than thirty thousand. This reconciled me to the newspaper accounts of his having preached to twenty-five thousand people in the fields, and to the history of generals haranguing whole armies, of which I had sometimes doubted.

‘By hearing him often I came to distinguish easily between sermons newly composed, and those which he had often preached in the course of his travels. His delivery of the latter was so improved by frequent repetition, that every accent, every emphasis, every modulation of voice, was so perfectly well-turned and well-placed, that without being interested in the subject, one could not help being pleased with the discourse; a pleasure of much the same kind with that received from an excellent piece of music. This is an advantage itinerant preachers have over those who are stationary, as the latter cannot well improve their delivery of a sermon by so many rehearsals.’

Franklin arrived in London in July 1757, as agent for the assembly of Pennsylvania in their remonstrance against the conduct of the proprietaries. The dispute turned upon the refusal of the latter to allow their estates in the province to be taxed by the assembly, in common with other private property. It was, after much delay and debate, brought, by the dexterity and zeal of the agent, to an issue entirely satisfactory to the province. The proprietaries submitted to the claim of the assembly, upon a condition readily accorded—that their estates should not be assessed beyond their due proportion. In the course of this suit, Franklin had to contend with strong prejudices which had been industriously excited both in the English government and people, against the dispositions and motives of his principals. It had been his habit at home, as he relates in his narrative, whenever a salutary project was in agitation, to prepare the public mind by writing on the subject in the newspapers. Soon after his arrival in England, he began to avail himself in like manner of the English gazettes, to rectify public opinion in regard to his errand, and the relative merits of the disputants. He employed his leisure, besides, during the negotiation with the proprietaries, in preparing, for the same general purpose, the considerable anonymous work which appeared in 1759, entitled ‘An Historical Review of the constitution and government of Pennsylvania.’ As he directly refers to this work, in his narrative, (p. 127) as his own, we do not see why his grand-son is so particular in discussing the point of authorship. It fully deserves, for the ability with which it is executed, the lofty encomiums which it received. It materially conduced not only to promote the author’s immediate object, but to serve the higher aim which he cherished from the earliest period, of vindicating and exalting the character of the North American colonies in general. We are inclined to think that he has done injustice in this *Historical Review*, to Penn

and his colleagues. Allowance is to be made in their favour for the special feelings and obligations under which he wrote; and we would remark by the way, that, to judge from the general tone, and certain passages, of his narrative, in respect to the Quakers, he was never a warm admirer of their spirit or management.

Such a man as Franklin could not fail to grow in consideration and form important connexions in London. Upon his urgent recommendation, the elder Pitt, then minister, undertook the conquest of Canada, which was so gloriously achieved by Wolfe.

In the summer of 1762, he returned laden with scientific honours, and enriched in his stock of knowledge, to resume his seat in the assembly of Pennsylvania. The old dispute between that body and the proprietaries sprouted anew, and Franklin was not backward in supporting the resolution adopted in 1764, of petitioning the king for a conversion of the *proprietary* into a *regal* administration. He was again selected as the agent of the province at the court of Great Britain, and accordingly proceeded thither without delay. In a short time afterwards, he was appointed by the colonies of New Jersey, Georgia and Massachusetts to represent them also on the same theatre. In 1766, he made an excursion to Holland and Germany, and in the following year to Paris, and wherever he appeared was welcomed by the learned and the great with demonstrations of esteem and admiration. As he turned all his Transatlantic voyages to the best account for natural philosophy, so he did these little journies, by many curious experiments and inquiries, which we have not room to specify.

Higher American interests than the quarrels of his province engaged his attention in London. It was in his exertions to procure the repeal of the stamp-act, that he appeared in his proper dimensions as a statesman, and in his natural vocation as the Champion of the whole American people. The ten years of his residence in England, from 1765 to 1775, constitute the true period of his noviciate in the high commission which he had received from Divine Providence. We cannot pursue his grand-son in the details which he has collected of his conduct and opinions in relation to the transactions on both sides of the water, during this momentous interval; but we must remark that nothing can exceed the admiration they are fitted to inspire of his sagacity, integrity, and patriotism. It is manifest to us that he despaired, nearly in the outset, of any permanent reformation in the British system and ideas concerning the colonies; that he counted and was intent, upon the struggle for independence; that, in his strenuous unfeigned endeavours to arrest the one party in its career of folly, and the other in the precipitate gratification of its just resentment, he consulted the supposed inclinations of his immediate constituents, and his distrust of the ability of his country to enter at once upon an armed contest with the mighty power of Britain.

There is abundant evidence, of his uniform and invincible determination, to submit to no terms of compromise for the rights to which the colonies appealed. We have had occasion to look over

a copy of a ministerial pamphlet* published in London in 1770, which contains a considerable number of marginal notes in his handwriting. It may not be amiss to quote some few of them here, in illustration of the temper of his mind at that period.

‘Pamphlet.—As this parliament came to resolutions last session to support the dignity and authority of the parliament of Great Britain over all British subjects they (the *colonists* and traders) cannot expect to carry *their point* whilst this parliament subsists.

‘Franklin.—This author supposes the colonists want a new parliament in order to have the duties taken off. He is mistaken. They did petition; they were *not heard*, and they will petition no more. They have taken their measures. Keep to your duties if you please; they will not pay them, because they will not use the commodities. And because they think you use them ill in laying such duties, they will manufacture for themselves, &c.

‘Pamphlet.—If the behaviour of the colonists arises in consequence of their charters, it seems high time to annul or amend them.

‘Franklin.—Meddle with them at your peril.

‘Pamphlet.—The colonies must acknowledge the legislative supremacy of Great Britain.

‘Franklin.—Never,’ &c.

The spirit and views of this good genius of the colonies, are further developed in his letter to the Hon. Thomas Cushing, dated July 7th, 1773, which is given in the 220th page of the present volume. He recommends in it the assembling of *a general congress; a full and solemn assertion and declaration of their rights; a mutual engagement that they will never grant aids to the crown, till those rights are recognised by the king and both houses of parliament—to the end of bringing the dispute to a crisis; of being in readiness for the united exertion of their common force, &c.*

In the third part of this volume, we have his exposition of the affair of Hutchinson and Oliver’s letters, which produced so lively a sensation both in America and England. The annals of the British government do not, perhaps, offer a scene more disgraceful to it, than the examination of this case before the lords of the privy-council. If the fierce and coarse invectives poured forth on the occasion against Franklin, by the solicitor-general, Wedderburn, and the *merriment* with which they were heard by the members of that high-court, appeared monstrous at the time, no language can express in what light they must now be viewed, after the publication of the exposition above mentioned. It is a calm, lucid, victorious statement, establishing for the author additional titles to the gratitude of his country, and the esteem of the world. It excites anew astonishment at the corruption and fatuity of the British ministry of that era; as indeed, ‘the wonder grows,’ whenever we are brought to look back on their proceedings. To the improvidence and wickedness of instigating the atrocious insults lavished upon the favourite agent of the colonies, was added, on their part,

* Entitled.—*Reflections, moral and political on Great Britain and her colonies.*

the littleness of dismissing him soon after, from the office of deputy-post master general, which he held under the crown.

He listened to the obloquy of Wedderburn, and witnessed the exultation of the council, without betraying the least emotion; but they made an indelible impression upon his mind. This can be understood from his exposition; and it is related upon the authority of Silas Deane, that, when he signed at Paris the treaty between France and America, he purposely attired himself in the same suit which he wore on his appearance before the council. We find nothing, however, in his history or writings, to warrant the presumption that he allowed the personal outrage to influence his subsequent public conduct; but, on the other hand, clear indications that his private resentments were lost in the indignation which he felt at the wrongs of his country, and in the ardour with which he sought to establish her independence.

How much the American predominated in him over the individual, may be collected from the circumstance, that though he preserved a perfect self-command and equanimity, when assailed so brutally in his own character, he could not always support in like manner the attacks made upon that of his nation. As an instance, we shall quote here, by anticipation, what he relates in a paper, which will furnish us by and by with details of no ordinary interest.

‘A little before I left London, being at the house of lords, when a debate in which lord Camden was to speak, and who indeed spoke admirably on American affairs, I was much disgusted, from the ministerial side, by many base reflections on American courage, religion, understanding, &c. in which we were treated with the utmost contempt, as the lowest of mankind, and almost of a different species from the English of Britain; but particularly the American honesty was abused by some of the lords, who asserted that we were all knaves, and wanted only by this dispute to avoid paying our debts; that if we had any sense of equity or justice, we should offer payment of the tea, &c. I went home somewhat irritated and heated; and partly to retort upon this nation, on the article of *equity*, drew up a memorial to present to lord Dartmouth before my departure; but consulting my friend Mr. Thomas Walpole upon it, who is a member of the house of commons, he looked at it and at me several times alternately, as if he apprehended me a little out of my senses.

‘He called at my house the next day, and hearing that I was gone to the house of lords, came there to me and stated that it was thought my having no instructions directing me to deliver such a protest would make it appear still more unjustifiable, and be deemed a national affront. I had no desire to make matters worse, and being grown cooler, took the advice so kindly given me.’

The editor has inserted a contemporaneous correspondence between Franklin and Dean Tucker, which the friends of the Dean, if any survive, cannot read with much satisfaction. He had hazarded some allegations injurious to Franklin in one of his pamphlets, and when pressed with explanations from the latter, too clear to be misunderstood, took refuge in silence. In temper,

candour, logic, and expression the American printer had a most decided advantage.

The storm gathered fast, and was soon felt in the masterly papers sent forth by the first congress which assembled in 1744. Franklin persisted with the British ministry and public, in the most animated expostulation and solemn warnings, until finding that his efforts were vain, and that the government thought of *arresting him as an incendiary*, he resolved to return at once to America, and embarked accordingly in March 1755.

It was during this voyage that he wrote the account in a letter to his son, of the negotiations 'in which he was concerned in London, with regard to the misunderstandings between Great Britain and America'—a precious historical document and which we have already described as likely to engage the attention of the politician, more than any other portion of the volume under consideration.

The brilliant minority in the British parliament had embarked zealously in the same cause with Franklin, and the important aid which they could afford each other was quickly perceived and sought. This circumstance led to frequent consultations between him and lord Chatham. At the same time, the opposition becoming every day more formidable as the crisis approached, and the ministry more embarrassed by this danger, and the failure of their measures of coercion, the latter formed the plan of making use of Franklin, if they could, to facilitate their extrication. Their indirect advances for this purpose, the schemes of pacification which he submitted to their informal agents, and his relations with the minority, constitute the principal matter of the memoir. He drew it up while his mind was yet reeking, if we may be allowed the phrase, with the contempt, disgust and detestation with which he had been filled, by the deeper insight he had obtained, into the composition and aims of the ministry, and the feelings of the monarch. Its tone bears testimony in more than one place, to the freshness and sharpness of his impressions.

In selecting for quotation some of the most striking passages, we shall begin with his account of the first oblique attempts at establishing a communication with him, on the part of the ministry, it having been, as he remarks, too humiliating for them to apply to him openly, after the indignities which they had heaped upon him at the council board.

'The new parliament was to meet the 29th of November, (1774.) About the beginning of that month, being at the Royal Society, Mr. Raper, one of our members, told me there was a certain lady who had a desire of playing with me at chess, fancying she could beat me, and had requested him to bring me to her: it was, he said, a lady with whose acquaintance he was sure I should be pleased, a sister of lord Howe's, and he hoped I would not refuse the challenge. I said, I had been long out of practice, but would wait upon the lady when he and she should think fit. He told me where her house was, and would have me call soon and without further introduction, which I undertook to do;

but thinking it a little awkward, I postponed it; and on the 30th, meeting him again at the feast of the society election, being the day after the parliament met, he put me in mind of my promise, and that I had not kept it, and would have me name a day when he said he would call for me and conduct me. I named the Friday following. He called accordingly: I went with him, played a few games with the lady, whom I found of very sensible conversation and pleasing behaviour, which induced me to agree most readily to an appointment for another meeting a few days afterwards. Though I had not the least apprehension that any political business could have any connexion with this new acquaintance.*

The plot was to be double, and accordingly Mr. David Barclay, received a separate commission.

‘On the Thursday preceding this chess party, Mr. David Barclay called on me to have some discourse concerning the meeting of merchants to petition parliament. When that was over, he spoke of the dangerous situation of American affairs, the hazard that a civil war might be brought on by the present measures, and the great merit that person would have, who could contrive some means of preventing so terrible a calamity, and bring about a reconciliation. He was then pleased to add, that he was persuaded, from my knowledge of both countries, my character and influence in one of them, and my abilities in business, no man had it so much in his power as myself. I naturally answered, that I should be very happy if I could in any degree be instrumental in so good a work, but that I saw no prospect of it; for, though I was sure the Americans were always willing and ready to agree upon any equitable terms, yet I thought an accommodation impracticable, unless both sides wished it; and by what I could judge from the proceedings of the ministry, I did not believe they had the least disposition towards it; that they rather wished to provoke the North American people into an open rebellion, which might justify a military execution, and thereby gratify a grounded malice which I conceived to exist here against the wigs and dissenters of that country. Mr. Barclay apprehended I judged too hardly of the ministers; he was persuaded they were not all of that temper, and he fancied they would be very glad to get out of their present embarrassment on any terms, only saving the honour and dignity of government. He wished, therefore, that I would think of the matter, and he would call again and converse with me further upon it. I said I would do so, as he requested it, but I had no opinion of its answering any purpose. We parted upon this.’

Two days after, Franklin received from Mr. Barclay and Dr. Fothergill jointly, an invitation to meet them,—with a view to the ‘momentous affair,’ at Fothergill’s house the following evening.

‘The time thus appointed was the evening of the day on which I was to have my second chess party with the agreeable Mrs. Howe, whom I met accordingly. After playing as long as we liked, we fell into a little chat partly on a mathematical problem,* and partly about the new parliament then just met, when she said, “And what is to be done with this dispute between Great Britain and the colonies? I hope we are not to have a civil war.” They should kiss and be friends, said I; what can they do better? Quarrelling can be of service to neither, but is ruin

* This lady (which is a little unusual in ladies,) has a good deal of mathematical knowledge. [*Note of Dr. Franklin.*]

to both. "I have often said," replied she, "that I wished government would employ you to settle the dispute for them; I am sure nobody could do it so well. Do not you think that the thing is practicable?" Undoubtedly, Madam, if the parties are disposed to reconciliation; for the two countries have really no clashing interests to differ about. It is rather a matter of punctilio, which two or three reasonable people might settle in half an hour. I thank you for the good opinion you are pleased to express of me; but the ministers will never think of employing me in that good work; they chuse rather to abuse me. "Ay," said she, "they have behaved shamefully to you. And indeed some of them are now ashamed of it themselves." I looked upon this as accidental conversation, thought no more of it, and went in the evening to the appointed meeting at Dr. Fothergill's, where I found Mr. Barclay with him.'

In this interview, Franklin repeated his despair of an accommodation, but Barclay assured him that 'whatever was the violence of some of the ministry, he had reason, *good reason*, to believe others were differently disposed,' and finally prevailed with him to promise to sketch a plan of adjustment, for consideration, which he, Barclay, could *get communicated* to the most moderate among the ministers.

A few evenings subsequent, the indefatigable patriot produced to him seventeen distinct 'Hints for Conversation upon the subject of terms that might probably produce a durable union between Britain and the colonies.' He assigned at length, on the second reading of the paper, his reasons for each article. He has written out the whole in his memoir, and it is scarcely necessary to state that he stipulated for all that the colonies could desire, short of independence. A fair copy of the Hints was requested, with permission to show them, collaterally, to 'lord Hyde, a very knowing man, and though not in the ministry, properly speaking, a good deal attended to by them.' It was agreed, moreover, (very seriously no doubt!) that Franklin should not be mentioned as a party to the conspiracy for peace.

In the course of a fortnight he received an intimation from Mr. Barclay, that lord Hyde thought 'the propositions too hard.' The negotiation proceeded, however, in the other quarter, and it is more interesting.

'On Christmas-day, visiting Mrs. Howe, she told me as soon as I went in, that her brother, lord Howe, wished to be acquainted with me; that he was a very good man, and she was sure we should like each other. I said, I had always heard a good character of lord Howe, and should be proud of the honour of being known to him. He is but just by, said she; will you give me leave to send for him? By all means, Madam, if you think proper. She rang for a servant, wrote a note, and lord Howe came in a few minutes.'

His lordship told him, after a long preamble of fine compliments, that if he would indulge him with his ideas of the means proper to bring about a reconciliation, it might be of some use; that being himself upon no ill terms with the ministry, he thought it not impossible that by conveying his (Franklin's) sentiments to them, and

repeating theirs reciprocally, he might be a means of bringing on a good understanding, &c.

The lady then offered to withdraw, but was prevented by the courteous philosopher, who assured her 'that he could have no secret in such a business which he would not freely confide to her prudence.' After a noble reply to Howe, he consented to prepare for him also, a paper of Terms. The lady proffered her house for the future meetings of the negotiators, as no suspicion would arise from Franklin's appearance there, 'it being known that she and the Dr. played together at chess.'

At the next rendezvous, lord Howe sounded him upon the project of sending out commissioners to America to inquire into grievances, and consult with the leading statesmen there, upon terms of accommodation. His lordship then produced a copy of the *Hints* in Barclay's hand-writing, and did not conceal his knowledge of the author. He also, found them 'too hard,' and solicited another project likely to be more palatable to ministers. 'He told me,' says Franklin, 'that he could not think of influencing me by any selfish motive, but certainly I might with reason expect any reward in the power of government to bestow. This to me was what the French vulgarly call *spitting in the soup*.'

At another meeting the same personage, in requesting him to make part of the contemplated mission to America, either as a friend, assistant, or secretary, remarked, that if he (lord Howe) undertook the business, he should insist on being enabled to make *generous and ample* appointments for those he took with him, as well as a firm promise of *subsequent rewards*; and concluded by asking leave of Franklin to procure for him, the payment of the arrears of his salary as agent for New England, in testimony of the *good disposition* of the ministry towards him!

The suggestion of 'unlimited recompense,' of *honours and rewards beyond his expectation*, if he would bring about a reconciliation suitable to the *dignity* of the government, was several times repeated to him by the other agents of the ministry, and always repelled with the lofty disdain and peremptory language which the majesty of his position, not less than the probity of his nature, was calculated to inspire.

Projects and counter-projects, and various ministerial manœuvres followed these conversations with lord Howe. Governor Pownall took his share, and Barclay, Fothergill, and Hyde all re-appeared, in the negotiation. Franklin could never have doubted for an instant of its miscarriage; but he appears to have discussed every proposition made on either side, with sincere zeal as well as commanding ability. It was impossible for him to refuse to negotiate; and incumbent upon him to make the most of the occasion for the full elucidation of the rights and merits of the colonies. He has left imperishable evidence of his patriotism and of the justice of their cause, in this memoir.

We pass from his negotiations with the ministerial lords, to his relations with the most remarkable Englishman of the day—lord

Chatham. We have reserved space for copious extracts, and will offer them without interposing any remarks of our own.

‘ When I came to England in 1757, you may remember I made several attempts to be introduced to lord Chatham, (at that time first minister) on account of my Pennsylvania business, but without success. He was then too great a man, or too much occupied in affairs of greater moment. I was therefore obliged to content myself with a kind of non-apparent and un-acknowledged communication through Mr. Potter and Mr. Wood his secretaries, who seemed to cultivate an acquaintance with me by their civilities, and drew from me what information I could give relative to the American war, with my sentiments occasionally on measures that were proposed or advised by others, which gave me the opportunity of recommending and enforcing the utility of conquering Canada. I afterwards considered Mr. Pitt as an *inaccessible*; I admired him at a distance, and made no more attempts for a nearer acquaintance. I had only once or twice the satisfaction of hearing through lord Shelburne, and I think lord Stanhope, that he did me the honour of mentioning me sometimes as a person of respectable character.

‘ But towards the end of August last, returning from Brighthelmstone, I called to visit my friend Mr. Sargent, at his seat, Halsted, in Kent, agreeably to a former engagement. He let me know, that he had promised to conduct me to lord Stanhope’s at Chevening, who expected I would call on him when I came into that neighbourhood. We accordingly waited on lord Stanhope that evening, who told me lord Chatham desired to see me, and that Mr. Sargent’s house, where I was to lodge, being in the way, he would call for me there the next morning, and carry me to Hayes. This was done accordingly. That truly great man received me with abundance of civility, inquired particularly into the situation of affairs in America, spoke feelingly of the severity of the late laws against the Massachusetts, gave me some account of his speech in opposing them, and expressed great regard and esteem for the people of that country, who he hoped would continue firm and united in defending by all peaceable and legal means their constitutional rights. I assured him, that I made no doubt they would do so; which he said he was pleased to hear from me, as he was sensible I must be well acquainted with them. I remarked to him, that this empire had happily found and long been in the practice of a method, whereby every province was well governed, being trusted in a great measure with the government of itself, and that hence had arisen such satisfaction in the subjects, and such encouragement to new settlements, that had it not been for the late wrong politics, (which would have parliament to be *omnipotent*, though it ought not to be so unless it could at the same time be *omniscient*,) we might have gone on extending our western empire, adding province to province as far as the South Sea. That I lamented the ruin which seemed impending over so fine a plan, so well adapted to make all the subjects of the greatest empire happy; and I hoped that if his lordship, with the other great and wise men of the British nation, would unite and exert themselves, it might yet be rescued out of the mangling hands of the present set of blundering ministers; and that the union and harmony between Britain and her colonies, so necessary to the welfare of both, might be restored.—He replied with great politeness, that my idea of

extending our empire in that manner was a sound one, worthy of a great, benevolent, and comprehensive mind.’ * * *

‘I had promised lord Chatham to communicate to him the first important news I should receive from America. I therefore sent him the proceedings of the congress as soon as I received them; but a whole week passed after I received the petition, before I could, as I wished to do, wait upon him with it, in order to obtain his sentiments on the *whole*; for my time was taken up in meetings with the other agents to consult about presenting the petition, in waiting three different days with them on lord Dartmouth, in consulting upon and writing letters to the speakers of assemblies, and other business, which did not allow me a day to go to Hayes. At last, on Monday the 26th, I got out, and was there about one o’clock; he received me with an affectionate kind of respect, that from so great a man was extremely engaging; but the opinion he expressed of the congress was still more so. They had acted, he said, with so much temper, moderation, and wisdom, that he thought it the most honourable assembly of statesmen since those of the ancient Greeks and Romans, in the most virtuous times. That there were not in their whole proceedings, above one or two things he could have wished otherwise; perhaps but one, and that was their assertion, that the keeping up a standing army in the colonies in time of peace, without consent of their legislatures, was against law; he doubted that was not well founded, and that the law alluded to did not extend to the colonies. The rest he admired and honoured. He thought the petition decent, manly, and properly expressed. He enquired much and particularly concerning the state of America, the probability of their perseverance, the difficulties they must meet with in adhering for any long time to their resolutions, the resources they might have to supply the deficiency of commerce, to all which I gave him answers with which he seemed well satisfied. He expressed a great regard and warm affection for that country, with hearty wishes for their prosperity; and that government here might soon come to see its mistakes, and rectify them; and intimated that possibly he might, if his health permitted, prepare something for its consideration, when the parliament should meet after the holidays; on which he should wish to have previously my sentiments.’

‘From Hayes I went to Halsted, Mr. Sargent’s place, to dine, intending thence a visit to lord Stanhope at Chevening; but hearing there that his lordship and the family were in town, I staid at Halsted all night, and the next morning went to Chislehurst to call upon lord Camden, it being in my way to town. I met his lordship and family in two carriages, just without his gate, going on a visit of congratulation to lord Chatham and his lady, on the late marriage of their daughter to lord Mahon, son of lord Stanhope. They were to be back to dinner; so I agreed to go in, stay dinner, and spend the evening there, and not return to town till next morning. We had that afternoon and evening a great deal of conversation on American affairs, concerning which he was very inquisitive, and I gave him the best information in my power. I was charmed with his generous and noble sentiments; and had the great pleasure of hearing his full approbation of the proceedings of the congress, the petition, &c. &c. of which, at his request, I afterwards sent him a copy. As he seemed anxious that the Americans should continue to act with the same temper, coolness, and wisdom, with which they

had hitherto proceeded in most of their public assemblies, in which case he did not doubt they would succeed in establishing their rights, and obtain a solid and durable agreement with the mother country; of the necessity and great importance of which agreement, he seemed to have the strongest impressions.' * * * * *

' On the 19th of Jan. I received a card from lord Stanhope, acquainting me, that lord Chatham having a motion to make on the morrow in the house of lords, concerning America, greatly desired that I might be in the house, into which lord S. would endeavour to procure me admittance. At this time it was a rule of the house that no person could introduce more than one friend. The next morning, his lordship let me know by another card, that if I attended at two o'clock in the lobby, lord Chatham would be there about that time, and would himself introduce me. I attended, and met him there accordingly. On my mentioning to him what lord Stanhope had written to me, he said, "Certainly; and I shall do it with the more pleasure, as I am sure your being present at this day's debate will be of more service to America than mine;" and so taking me by the arm, was leading me along the passage to the door that enters near the throne, when one of the door-keepers followed and acquainted him that by the order, none were to be carried in at that door, but the eldest sons or brothers of peers; on which he limped back with me to the door near the bar, where were standing a number of gentlemen waiting for the peers who were to introduce them, and some peers waiting for friends they expected to introduce; among whom he delivered me to the doorkeepers, saying aloud, this is Dr. Franklin, whom I would have admitted into the house; when they readily opened the door for me accordingly. As it had not been publicly known that there was any communication between his lordship and me, this I found occasioned some speculation.'

' I was quite charmed with lord Chatham's speech in support of his motion.* He impressed me with the highest idea of him as a great and most able statesman.'

' On the Sunday following, being the 29th, his lordship came to town, and called upon me in Craven street. He brought with him his plan transcribed, in the form of an act of parliament, which he put into my hands, requesting me to consider it carefully, and to communicate to him such remarks upon it as should occur to me.'

' He concluded to offer it the Wednesday following; and therefore wished to see me upon it the preceding Tuesday, when he would again call upon me, unless I could conveniently come to Hayes. I chose the latter, in respect to his lordship, and because there was less likelihood of interruptions: and I promised to be with him early, that we might have more time. He staid with me near two hours, his equipage waiting at the door; and being there while people were coming from church, it was much taken notice of and talked of, as at that time was every little circumstance that men thought might possibly any way affect

* ' It was reported at the time, that his lordship had concluded his speech with the following remarkable words. " If the ministers thus persevere in *misadvising* and *misleading* the king, I will not say that they can alienate the affections of his subjects from his crown, but I will affirm, that they will make the crown *not worth his wearing*. I will not say that the king is betrayed, but I will pronounce that *the kingdom is undone*."

American affairs. Such a visit from so great a man, on so important a business, flattered not a little my vanity; and the honour of it gave me the more pleasure; as it happened the very day twelve months, that the ministry had taken so much pains to disgrace me before the privy council.'

'I was at Hayes early on Tuesday, agreeably to my promise, when we entered into consideration of the plan; but though I staid near four hours, his lordship, in the manner of, I think, all eloquent persons, was so full and diffuse in supporting every particular I questioned, that there was not time to go through half my memorandums; he is not easily interrupted, and I had such pleasure in hearing him, that I found little inclination to interrupt him.' * * * * *

'On Wednesday, lord Stanhope, at lord Chatham's request, called upon me, and carried me down to the house of lords, which was soon very full. Lord Chatham in a most excellent speech, introduced, explained, and supported his plan. When he sat down, lord Dartmouth rose, and very properly said, it contained matter of such weight and magnitude, as to require much consideration, and he therefore hoped the noble earl did not expect their lordships to decide upon it by an immediate vote, but would be willing it should lie upon the table for consideration. Lord Chatham answered readily that he expected nothing more. But lord Sandwich rose, and in a petulant vehement speech, opposed its being received at all, and gave his opinion that it ought to be immediately *rejected*, with the contempt it deserved. That he could never believe it to be the production of any British peer. That it appeared to him rather the work of some American; and turning his face towards me, who was leaning on the bar, said, he fancied he had in his eye the person who drew it up, one of the bitterest and most mischievous enemies this country had ever known. This drew the eyes of many lords upon me: but as I had no inducement to take it to myself, I kept my countenance as immoveable as if my features had been made of wood.'

'Lord Chatham, in his reply to lord Sandwich, took notice of his illiberal insinuation that the plan was not the person's, who proposed it: declared that it was entirely his own, a declaration he thought himself the more obliged to make, as many of their lordships appeared to have so mean an opinion of it; for if it was so weak or bad a thing, it was proper in him to take care that no other person should unjustly share in the censure it deserved. That it had been heretofore reckoned his vice not to be apt to take advice; but he made no scruple to declare, that if he were the first minister of this country, and had the care of settling this momentous business, he should not be ashamed of publicly calling to his assistance, a person so perfectly acquainted with the whole of American affairs as the gentleman alluded to and so injuriously reflected on; one, he was pleased to say, whom all Europe held in high estimation, for his knowledge and wisdom, and ranked with our Boyles and Newtons: who was an honour, not to the English nation only, but to human nature! I found it harder to stand this extravagant compliment than the preceding equally extravagant abuse; but kept as well as I could an unconcerned countenance, as not conceiving it to relate to me.'

In the commencement of May 1775, Franklin was again in Philadelphia, and the very day after his arrival, elected by the legis-

lature of Pennsylvania, a delegate to congress. He considered the die as cast, and had thenceforward but one aim—national independence, to which he devoted all his faculties. As chairman of the committee of safety, he projected the *cheveaux de frize* for the security of the capital; he urged and procured the adoption of a paper money, and encouraged the emission of it to the extent of the public exigencies. Though upwards of seventy years of age, he consented, at the desire of congress, to go on two missions, one to the American camp near Boston; the other to Canada, a journey attended with the severest personal hardships. It may be readily imagined that he rendered important services in the foreign correspondence of congress, which no other man was so competent to direct. On the agitation in that assembly of the great question of a declaration of independence, he exerted all his influence in favor of the measure. He set a most efficacious example of stern decision and firmness of purpose in this great cause; and, with a view to maintain the public mind in the requisite degree of animation, as well as for the gratification of his patriotic feelings, he went even beyond his colleagues in the asperity of his language and magnitude of his charges against the British government.

When Lord Howe appeared at length, on the American coast, as *joint commissioner* with his brother, Franklin was one of the three whom congress deputed from their body to meet him, and report the proposals which he had to make. There is no performance of Franklin which sets out in stronger relief his revolutionary energy and consummate ability, than his letter of July 20, 1776; belonging to the particular correspondence which Howe thought it advisable to open with him on this occasion.

In July 1776, a convention was held at Philadelphia for the purpose of giving a new constitution to the *state* of Pennsylvania, and Franklin was chosen to preside over their deliberations. He succeeded in introducing into the constitution adopted, his favourite principles of a *plural executive and single legislature*. The theory failed of success in this instance, and has never been tried with advantage in modern times. He adhered to it steadfastly, and supported it with much ingenious and plausible reasoning; but it may with confidence be pronounced erroneous, and we cannot refrain from expressing our surprise that it found favor with so erudite and sagacious a statesman.

Not much time elapsed before the necessity of an adequate representation in France became evident to congress; and there could be no hesitation, in the choice of the individual to be charged with the interests of the revolution, on that all-important theatre. The appointment of Franklin was hailed by the whole country as the happiest of auguries and it justified in the result every the most sanguine prediction and hope.* We can barely

* Before he sailed on this mission, he put all the money he could raise, between three and four thousand pounds, into the hands of congress—and this proof of confidence encouraged others to lend. When in England he offered payment, at his own risk, for the tea destroyed at Boston, in case the oppressive acts were repealed, pledging thus more than his whole fortune.

touch on some salient points of the history of this mission, and must repeat our complaint that his grand-son has dispensed to the world so few, comparatively, of its private details.

The minister *plenipotentiary* of congress did not proceed immediately to Paris on his arrival in France. He remained a week in the neighbourhood of Nantz. 'He did not,' says his grand-son, 'assume at that time any public character; thinking it prudent to know first whether the court was ready and willing to receive *publicly* commissioners from the congress:—he did not wish to embarrass the ministry on the one hand, nor to subject himself and his colleagues to the hazard of a disgraceful refusal on the other.' He practised the same decorous and conciliatory reserve—well worthy of imitation in these times,—when appointed soon after by congress to negotiate a treaty with the court of Spain. In the letter which he wrote to the Spanish ambassador at Paris, on leaving with him a copy of his commission, we find the following declaration—'As I understand that the receiving a minister plenipotentiary from congress is not at present thought convenient in Spain, and I am sure the congress would have nothing done that might incommode in the least a court they so much respect, I shall, therefore, postpone that journey till circumstances may make it more suitable.'

He fixed his residence at Passy, a village distant about a league from the capital. A year elapsed before he was recognised by the French government, but, in the interval all classes of its subjects testified, by the most flattering attentions, their veneration for the man, and predilection for his cause. The weight of his character and the skill of his management speedily yielded important fruits, in the large supplies of every description placed at his disposal by the ministry. Combined with fortunate events in America, his personal influence extorted the recognition of the 6th December 1777, and the memorable treaty of alliance of the 6th February 1778. Franklin had long been classed, in science, with the 'Newtons and Boyles:—it was at this epoch that he appeared on a level, in diplomacy, with the Temples and Vergennes.

Besides his high political functions, he exercised in France those of consul, judge of admiralty, national broker and merchant, &c. and says truly of himself that although he had always been an active man, he never went through so much business during eight years, in any part of his life, as he did there during the same term. His minor vexations arising from the importunities of projectors, speculators, military and other adventurers, were innumerable, and are amusingly described in some of the letters produced by his grand-son. 'You can have no conception,' says he in one of them, 'how I am harassed. All my friends are sought out and teased to tease me. Great officers of all ranks in all departments, ladies great and small, besides professed solicitors, worry me from morning until night. The noise of every coach that now enters my court, terrifies me. I am afraid to accept an invitation to dine abroad, being almost sure of meeting with some officer or officer's friend, who, as soon as I

am put in good humour by a glass or two of champagne, begins his attack upon me. Luckily I do not often in my sleep dream of these vexatious situations, or I should be afraid of what are now my only hours of comfort.'

And again—'The number of wild schemes proposed to me is so great, that I begin to reject all, though possibly *some* of them may be worth notice. A good Abbé brings me a large manuscript, containing a scheme of reformation of all churches and states, religion, commerce, laws, &c. which he has planned in his closet without much know ledge of the world. It is amazing the number of legislators that kindly bring me new plans for governing the United States.'

Notwithstanding these teasings, the torments of the gout and the stone, the extent of his private correspondence, and the variety and importance of his official avocations, he found leisure and spirits to write, and print with a small set of types which he kept in his house, light essays, *jeux d'esprit*, and serious papers upon philosophical and other subjects. Weariness overtook him at last, however, in March 1781, when he foresaw with certainty the speedy attainment of the great purpose of the Revolution, he solicited from congress, permission to retire from his station. That body prudently refused to comply with his request, and it is delightful to think of the elasticity of character at 76 years of age which prompted the following language, concerning the failure of his application.—'The congress,' he writes to a friend—'have done me the honour to refuse accepting my resignation, and insist on my continuing in their service until the peace. I must therefore buckle again to the business, and thank God that my health and spirits are of late improved.' The king of France added to his labours, by putting him at the head of a committee appointed to investigate the merits of Mesmer's *Animal Magnetism*, with which all Paris was infatuated. He displayed his wonted perspicacity in the detection of the imposture.

We refer to the 3d part of the volume of his Correspondence for the history of what he performed in the negotiation for peace between England and the American States. It attests the judgment of congress in clinging to such a pillar of strength, and justifies us in saying, that his agency is among the most signal of those many instances of a superintending providence in favour of the colonies, which, to repeat his own remark, all who were engaged in the revolutionary struggle must have observed. He negotiated, besides, a treaty of amity and commerce with Sweden, and another with Prussia. At length, in 1785, his resignation was accepted at home, and Mr. Jefferson appointed to succeed him. We repeat with exultation what this gentleman has written, 'that there appeared to him more respect and veneration attached to the character of Dr. Franklin in France, than to that of any other person in the same country, foreigner or native.'*

* All are familiar with the line of Turgot inscribed on his bust:—

'Eripuit cælo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis.'

It is an imitation of a verse of the *Anti-Lucretius*:

'Eripuitque Jovi fulmen, Plæboque sagittas.'

On his return to his native land, he did not, though on the verge of fourscore, abandon the public service. He acted for three years as president of the state of Pennsylvania, and consented to appear as the delegate of that state in the convention which framed our present constitution. He faithfully attended, as he says himself, the business of the convention four months, and gave his earnest sanction to its work. His speech at the conclusion of its deliberations was admirably adapted to produce that unanimity in the adoption of the constitution, which he deemed of the highest importance. In some fragments of letters on the subject of the new system, which his grand-son has inserted, we find the following remarkable passages: 'Though there is a general dread of giving too much power to our *governors*, I think we are more in danger from the little obedience in the *governed*.—We have been guarding against an evil that old states are most liable to, *excess of power* in the rulers; but our present danger seems to be *defect of obedience* in the subjects. There is hope, however, from the enlightened state of this age and country, we may guard effectually against that evil as well as the rest.'

He retired wholly from political life in October 1788, though not from the race of benevolence. He enlisted himself in societies for the improvement of public prisons, the abolition of slavery, &c. and wrote much in furtherance of their objects. For the last twelve months of his life, he was almost entirely confined to his bed, by an excruciating disease, but his activity and strength of mind suffered no decline. He died at the age of 84, content in all respects with his existence;—a rare felicity and a cheering spectacle.

The real opinions of Franklin concerning the truth of revelation are involved in doubt; but whatever may have been his belief on this head, it is certain that he reprobated all ostentatious or proselytizing infidelity, and cherished with deep devotion the principles of natural religion. His creed so far is emphatically stated in his letter to Dr. Ezra Stiles, which has been published in several of our newspapers. He had a firm conviction of a particular Providence, and did constant homage to the agency which he ascribed to it as well in the affairs of individuals as in the fate of nations. One of the most remarkable of the papers contained in this volume, is the speech which he pronounced in support of his motion for daily prayers in the Convention. It is a most impressive, as it was, no doubt, a most sincere testimony of the obedience of his vigorous and experienced understanding, to a lesson of piety, which furnishes the strongest motives to habitual rectitude. He has traced an outline of his religious notions and practices in his Continuation of his life, and as many of our readers may be curious with respect to whatever he has left on the subject, we will give it in his own words.

'I had been religiously educated as a presbyterian; though some of the dogmas of that persuasion, such as *the eternal decrees of God, election, reprobation, &c.* appeared to me unintelligible, others doubtful; and I early absented myself from the public assemblies of the sect,

Sunday being my studying day. I never was without some religious principles: I never doubted, for instance, the existence of a Deity; that he made the world and governed it by his providence; that the most acceptable service to God was the doing good to man; that our souls are immortal; and that all crimes will be punished, and our virtue rewarded, either here or hereafter: these I esteemed the essentials of every religion, and being to be found in all the religions we had in our country I respected them all, though with different degrees of respect, as I found them more or less mixed with other articles, which without any tendency to inspire, promote, or confirm morality, served principally to divide us, and make us unfriendly to one another. This respect to all, with an opinion that the worst had some good effects, induced me to avoid all discourse that might tend to lessen the good opinion another might have of his own religion; and as our province increased in people, and new places of worship were continually wanted, and generally erected by voluntary contribution, my mite for such purpose, whatever might be the sect, was never refused.

‘Though I seldom attended any public worship, I had still an opinion of its propriety, and of its utility when rightly conducted, and I regularly paid my annual subscription for the support of the only Presbyterian minister or meeting we had in Philadelphia. He used to visit me sometimes as a friend, and admonish me to attend his administrations; and I was now and then prevailed on to do so; once for five Sundays successively. Had he been in my opinion a good preacher, perhaps I might have continued, notwithstanding the occasion I had for the Sunday’s leisure in my course of study; but his discourses were chiefly either polemic arguments, or explications of the peculiar doctrines of our sect, and were all to me very dry, uninteresting, and unedifying; since not a single moral principle was inculcated or enforced; their aim seeming to be rather to make us *presbyterians* than *good citizens*. At length he took for his text that verse of the 4th chapter to the Philippians, “*Finally brethren, whatsoever things are true, honest, just, pure, lovely, or of good report, if there be any virtue, or any praise, think on these things.*” And I imagined in a sermon on such a text, we could not miss of having some morality. But he confined himself to five points only as meant by the apostle: viz. Keeping holy the Sabbath day. 2. Being diligent in reading the holy Scriptures. 3. Attending duly the public worship. 4. Partaking of the Sacrament. 5. Paying a due respect to God’s ministers. These might be all good things, but as they were not the kind of good things that I expected from that text, I despaired of ever meeting with them from any other, was disgusted, and attended his preaching no more. I had some years before composed a little liturgy, or form of prayer, for my own private use, (viz. in 1728,) entitled, *Articles of Belief and Acts of Religion*. I returned to the use of this, and went no more to the public assemblies. My conduct might be blamable, but I leave it without attempting further to excuse it; my present purpose being to relate facts, and not to make apologies for them.’

The splendid reputation which illuminated the old age of Franklin had nothing in it artificial or perishable. His name is now exalted in Europe above any other of the eighteenth century.*

* See *Edinburg Review* for August 1817

It ranks among the first on the list of the acknowledged benefactors of the human race. One trait alone of his history will serve to avouch this distinction;—that wherever he appeared, the apostles of charity, the public-spirited, the doers and projectors of good in every walk of beneficence, rallied to him instinctively as to their chief and oracle. His will attests that his ruling passion—the love of country—‘was strong in death.’ No one has lived between whom and so many of the most celebrated geniuses, of various orders, a close parallel may, so justly be established. In the temple of Fame, he is not misplaced by the side of Newton, or Barneveldt, or Addison, or Arbuthnot, or Fontenelle, or la Rochefoucauld;—to say nothing more of the station which he holds in its most illustrious group—that of the philanthropists. In studying his character and writings, with Xenophon’s *Memorabilia* before us, we could almost credit the transmigration of souls; so perfect is the congeniality between him and Socrates. But we leave this topic, as well as those of his literary merits, and of his particular claims to the gratitude of America, for the occasion which will be afforded by the third volume of his Memoirs.

ART. II.—*Review of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, Vol. 1 of the New Series, quoted.*

(Continued from p. 320.)

On Vanishing Fractions. By Jared Mansfield, Professor of the Military Academy at Washington.

THIS paper cannot be well explained without a reference to algebraic illustrations, which do not accord with the plan of this work.

An account of Pyrometric Experiments made at Newark, New Jersey, by F. R. Hasler.

These were made to determine the ratio of expansion between measures of Iron and Brass, preparatory to an official survey of the coast of the United States, in which Mr. Hasler was employed by the Executive of this country.

The general mean of the expansion for each degree of Fahrenheit, proved to be, Iron, 000006963535: Brass, 00001050903: difference, 000003545495.

The proportional expansion for one degree of Fahrenheit, for iron and brass is,

	for Iron.	for Brass.
According to Lavoisier and Laplace	00000678	000010498
According to Mr. Hasler - - -	00000696	000010498

English Phonology: or an essay toward an analysis and description of the component sounds of the English Language. By P. S. Duponceau.

This seems to us from the manner in which it is here treated to be a new subject. Every body knows how difficult it is, to acquire correctly the pronunciation of a foreign language: this is owing to a difference in the articulation of elementary sounds, particularly

vowels. To instance in the vowel *a*: the English alphabet has no powers to express the French sound of *a* in *car*, *par*: nor can the French alphabet represent the short sound of the English *a*, in *hat*, *fat*, however simple these sounds may respectively appear to the inhabitants of each nation respectively.

So, no idea can be conveyed by alphabetical signs through the eye, of the sound annexed to the *u* of the French and Low-Dutch—the *æ* and *eu* of the Germans and French—the *yerwe* of the Russians—the guttural *l* of the Poles—the *θ* of the Greeks—the *th* of the English,* &c. &c.

Indeed, it seems impossible by mere written signs, to convey to the mental ear, sounds which the natural ear has never heard. Hence no universal alphabet can convey adequate notions of the varieties of sounds actually existing in human language. Something like an approximation might indeed be made, by an accurate analysis of known elementary alphabetical sounds, and by classing them according to their respective analogies; and thus might be exhibited the elements of a new science, which the author of this memoir would call the *phonology of language*.

In this respect, the elementary sounds of a language seem to be of a more permanent character, than the written language. Orthography is so variable, that in none of the common European languages, does it correspond accurately with the elementary sounds which it seems meant to convey. Still, no good effect is likely to result from the perpetual attempts at innovation by way of improving the spelling of words, so as to conform more accurately to the sounds annexed to them; for probably no two persons would agree in these alterations; and with the mass of readers, they would only tend to throw the whole written language into utter confusion, even if the innovation could be forced upon the people by a sufficient authoritative sanction; which is not likely to be the case. When once a sound is associated with a word, that word becomes a sign of the sound equally with any other word. Thus the sound we annex to *tongue*, may as well be annexed to *brox* or any other collection of letters; for the connexion is not natural, but arbitrary. When once therefore the connexion is established by common consent, the purpose (as it seems to us) is answered, whether one, two, three or any other number of letters be employed to designate the sound. Some combinations of letters seem to approximate more to the combined elementary sounds annexed to the separate letters, of which the word is composed, than others; still, the association of the sound with the written character being once made, the main, practical purpose of graphic language, is answered. Mr. Duponceau is of opinion, (with good reason as we think) that the standard of pronunciation in any language, does not exist in the poetry of the nation; but in the language of solemn recitation, where every sound

* We recollect a wag of that nation travelling through France in the days of the old regime, who called himself Mr. Theodore Thickthackthedge; a name impossible for a Frenchman, not conversant with English, to pronounce.

must be distinctly uttered, and where no licenses are permitted as in rhythm or in metre. Every Englishman who has been at Paris particularly, must be aware of the great use to be made, of attending sermons, orations, and the declamation of the theatre: for in these alone can accurate pronunciation be heard or learnt. The popular dictionaries of Walker and Sheridan, the common standards of pronunciation in this country, are really of no authority: they are the compilations of men, whose literary society and literary acquirements, were not of the class to entitle them to be considered as of weight in the cases they have presumed to determine. This is well known to every Englishman conversant with the literary world in that nation from five and twenty to five and thirty years ago.

For the purpose of instituting something like an attempt to analyse the elementary sounds of the English language, Mr. Duponceau has written this essay: in which he has endeavoured to separate and distinguish by the ear only, all the various sounds that enter into the composition of the English oral language: to distinguish between those which habit, or authority, have taught us to consider as similar, altho' different in fact; and to join together, those which have been considered as different, from mere difference in quality or duration of utterance. In so doing, he has not been able to discover more than 29 pure elementary sounds; of which 7 are vocal, or vowels, 21 organic or consonants, and 2 aspirations.

For the purpose of preventing mistakes owing to prior associations, he gives new and arbitrary names to each sound, and exemplifies each of them by words wherein they enter. But as we have not space to afford for a more ample analysis of this interesting essay, we must content ourselves by recommending it to the attentive perusal of the reader.

On the fossil reliquia of unknown vegetables in coal strata. By the Rev. H. Steinhauer.

Fossil vegetables are divided into wood, fruit, leaves, flower, and indeterminate reliquia. Of flowers, we doubt without denying the existence, notwithstanding the assertions at Oeningen.

The present paper is devoted to fossil vegetable remains, that discover no traces of analogy to existing vegetables. The whole subject is exceedingly curious, and the present paper is a very interesting, though brief collection of the facts observed concerning the vegetable impressions of which it treats. For our own parts, we have no doubt but the vegetables submerged or cohobated, that form the coal strata, consisted originally in the transition range of strata, of the earlier and smaller vegetables that were meant to be converted by destruction and decomposition into vegetable mould: and as we proceed upwards from the transition anthracite coal, through the independent coal formation to the wood or bovey coal, the surturbrand of the alluvial, we find traces of larger growths and more exuberant vegetation. But it would require half a volume to detail the facts and reasonings upon which these opinions are grounded.

Mr. Steinhauer, notices, 1. *PHYTOLITHUS verrucosus*. 2. *sulcatus*. 3. *cancellatus*. 4. *parmatus*. 5. *reticulatus*. 6. *martini*. 7. *transversus*. 8. *dawsoni*. 9. *notatus*. 10. *tessellatus*. These are accompanied with satisfactory plates of the remains described.

Account of a large wen, successfully extirpated. By John Syng Dorsey; with a plate.

The circumference of this wen at the thickest part vertically, was 3 feet 9 inches. The circumference horizontally, was 3 feet 1 inch and a half. The tumour after extirpation weighed 25 pounds, but when filled with blood, probably much more. The woman was a negro, about fifty years of age, in the service of Thomas Cooper, esq. Professor of Chemistry at Carlisle. The tumour had been 18 years growing. The woman was placed on her face for 15 minutes previous to the operation; and the tumour held up, so as to empty as much as possible the vessels of the blood which filled them in their dependant state: precautions, *which appear to have greatly contributed to the success of the operation*. This seems the largest wen hitherto known to have been successfully extirpated; and the operation does much credit to Dr. Dorsey the operator.

An account of an improvement made in the differential thermometer of Mr. Leslie. By Elisha De Butts, M. D. Professor of Chemistry at Baltimore.

Dr. De Butts was induced to adopt the present improvement on Leslie's thermometer from the difficulty of procuring the British instrument accurately made in this country. It is certainly an ingenious and useful variation, but cannot be described satisfactorily here, for want of reference to the plate.

The same difficulty occurs with respect to the next paper, which also deserves credit for the ingenuity of the contrivance proposed in it: viz.

Description of an improved Piston for Steam-Engines without hemp-packing. By Pet. A. Browne, Esq.

On bleaching. By Thomas Cooper, Esq. In the history of the introduction of bleaching with the oxymuriatic acid into Great Britain, in Rees's Encyclopædia and in Parke's essays, notice has been taken of the share Mr. Cooper had in this improvement, altho' his name is not mentioned by Dr. Henry or Dr. Thomson. It now appears from this paper, that the method of bleaching with that acid, at the works of Baker & Co. was and still is in England utterly unknown: although from the present description of it, the improvement in bleaching, and the great superiority of the process here described can hardly be doubted. We recollect, that many years afterward the oxymuriatic acid was made for small experiments by M. Fabroni in the method here described by Mr. Cooper, but the original invention and the application of it in a large way, is certainly due exclusively to this gentleman, and to Mr. Baker; for it is not true as Dr. Thomson asserts, that Mr. Henry or any of his family ever attempted bleaching in the large way. When we say, that the process here described supersedes the ne-

cessity of manganese, fire, furnaces, retorts, and recipients, and that the acid can be made by one or two people to the amount of many thousand gallons in an hour, it will probably induce those who are interested in the theory or the practice of bleaching, to peruse this paper, with the attention which the process proposed, appears to deserve. We recollect, a brief account of this process from the pen of Mr. Cooper inserted by Dr. Mease in his edition of Willich's Domestic Encyclopædia. The paper is accompanied by a plate in this volume. The process of bleaching by great pressure on the alkaline liquor mentioned in the latter part of this paper, is described also by Dr. Thomson in the article Bleaching in the supplement to the Edinburgh Encyclopædia: an article however, which is in many respects, historical and practical, very erroneous.

Description and use of a simple appendage to the reflecting sector, by which it is rendered capable of measuring all possible altitudes on land by reflection from an artificial horizon. By Robert Patterson.

The object of this ingenious contrivance is explained in the first paragraphs of the paper itself.

‘ Since the discovery of the reflecting sector, various attempts have been made to extend the limits of its capacity in measuring angles. This becomes especially necessary in taking altitudes on land, by means of an artificial horizon, or reflecting horizontal surface; since, in this case, the altitude measured is, from the construction of the instrument, but *one half* of that pointed out by the index on the limb: thus, an octant will not measure an altitude of more than 45° , a sextant, not one of more than 60° , a quintant, not one of more than 72° ; and beyond this, the limits of the sector has seldom if ever, been extended. It is, indeed, perfectly obvious, that no instrument of this kind can, by means of a reflecting horizontal surface, measure an altitude of 90° ; for, then, the incident ray and the reflected ray must coincide, and both pass through the eye of the observer—which is evidently impossible. Nay, when the altitude exceeds 75° , the head of the observer will, almost unavoidably, intercept the incident ray, in its passage to the reflecting surface. Besides, the field of view, from the obliquity of the index speculum, will then become too much contracted to afford an easy observation.

‘ No improvement, therefore, in the construction of this instrument, can ever be expected to answer the purpose of measuring all possible altitudes by means of a common artificial horizon: but with the aid of the following very simple appendage, this purpose will be completely answered, even by the common octant.

‘ The whole apparatus, to be used with the reflecting sector, consists of three parts.

1. An artificial horizon, or horizontal reflecting glass plane, with its adjusting screws.
2. A spirit-level.
3. A reflecting inclined plane.

‘ The two first parts of this apparatus, as well as the manner of adjusting them, are well known, and, therefore, need not here be described.’

The reflecting inclined plane, needs the plate to enable the reader to understand it.

Description and use of a very simple instrument for setting up Sun Dials, and for many other useful purposes. By Robert Paterson.

This also is a very useful contrivance by the ingenious author of the former paper, but the limits of this review will not allow us to copy the description.

Observations made at an early period on the climate of the country about the river Delaware: collected from the records of the Swedish colony. By Nicolas Collin, Rector of the Swedes church at Philadelphia.

There is little in this account worthy of notice, as differing materially from facts of the same kind now commonly observed. Except perhaps the remark of governor *Rising*, and engineer *Lindestrom* in 1654, that winter began in December and ended in January, continuing but 7, 8, or at the most 9 weeks. This is a curious fact, if it can be relied on: but modern experience renders it somewhat apocryphal.

Research concerning the mean diameter of the earth. By Robert Adrain.

‘The figure of the earth approaches nearly to that of an oblate spheroid of revolution, the axis being to the equatorial diameter in the ratio of 320 to 321. When this figure is made use of in navigation, geography, &c. the calculations become much more abstruse and laborious than when we consider the earth simply as a sphere. In certain cases, where extreme accuracy is necessary, the oblate figure must be taken into account; but in general, the globular figure will still be retained, as sufficiently accurate for most purposes, of great simplicity in theory, and of easy calculation in practice.

‘But, if we substitute a sphere instead of the spheroid with which the figure of the earth very nearly coincides, we are by no means at liberty to choose the diameter of the sphere without restriction: we must select a sphere agreeing with the spheroid in as many important circumstances as possible. Of these the following deserve particular attention.

I. The sphere should be equal in magnitude to the spheroid.

II. The mass of the sphere should be equal to that of the spheroid.

III. The surface of the sphere should be equal to the surface of the spheroid.

IV. The length of a degree of a great circle on the surface of the sphere should be a mean of all the degrees of great ellipses on the surface of the spheroid.

V. The radius of the sphere should be a mean of all the radii of the spheroid.

VI. The gravity on the surface of the sphere should be equal to the mean gravity on the surface of the spheroid.

‘When the spheroid differs very little from a sphere, as in the present case, so that we may neglect, as inconsiderable, all the powers of the ellipticity above the first, we are led to a remarkable coincidence; for all these conditions are fulfilled by one and the same sphere. The determination of this sphere is the object of the following calculations.’

These calculations form the body of the paper, whose object will be understood from the preceding introduction. The result is compressed in the following paragraph.

‘Having determined the most probable axes of the terrestrial spheroid from the measurement of degrees of the meridian by a method which I discovered several years ago, and published in *The Analyst*; the resulting mean radius was found to be 3959.36 English miles. The diameter of the earth taken as a sphere is therefore 7918.7, the circumference 24877.4, and the length of a degree of a great circle 69.104, or $69\frac{1}{8}$ English miles very nearly.’

An improvement on the common Ship-pump. By Robert Patterson.

This improvement is described in the opening of the memoir.

‘Notwithstanding the numerous improvements that have, from time to time, been proposed in the construction of *ship-pumps*, yet, after all, the common *lifting pump* still remains in general use.

‘The paper, now submitted to the consideration of the society, is an attempt towards an improvement in *this pump*, by means of a very simple appendage, that may be readily applied at any time, when wanted, and by which a very considerable proportion of the manual labour, usually employed, will be saved.

‘The following is a description of this appendage, with the manner of its application and use.

I. Let a plug of white pine, cedar, or any other suitable wood, or of cork, be made, very nearly cylindrical, so as exactly to fit the bore of the pump above the nozzle.

II. Through the axis of this plug, a hole is to be bored, of the size of the pump-rod; and then the plug is to be split or cut through the axis or centre of the hole.

III. Place this plug round the pump-rod, and let it be firmly inserted into the bore of the pump, above the nozzle; and there secured by a pin or bolt driven through the pump, just above the plug, so as to prevent it from being raised by the force of the water acting against it. The part of the pump-rod that works in the plug may be made as round and smooth as possible, in order to prevent friction, and the passage of water through the hole. With the same view, the hole may be lined or packed with oakum, and a stratum of oil or slush placed over the plug.—It will be advisable to have the nozzle inserted as *low down* in the pump-tree as practicable, and thus the vertical hole through the plug will be the less affected by the angular motion of the pump-rod.

IV. Round the nozzle of the pump, let there be fastened one end of a pretty wide open hose, of leather or painted canvas; the other end passing over or through the side of the vessel, and hanging down into the water. The pump, with this simple appendage, may be considered as a *syphon*, having the shorter leg outside, and the longer leg inside of the vessel; and the height to which the water will *in effect* have to be raised, by the action of pumping, will be no more than the *difference* between the height of the water in the hold and that outside of the vessel; and thus, frequently, more than *half* the usual labour of pumping will be saved.’

Observations on these processes of the Ethmoid Bone, which originally form the sphenoidal sinuses. By Caspar Wistar, M. D. President of the Society, and Professor of Anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania.

This paper by the late President of the society, whose death occasioned so much sensation in Philadelphia, is of a nature too tech-

nical and professional to be abstracted here, especially as it requires the illustration of the accompanying plate. The opinion of the author is comprized in the following paragraph.

‘ Upon comparing these perfect specimens of the Ethmoid and Sphenoidal Bones of the subject about two years of age, with the Os Sphenoides of a young subject who was more advanced in years, it appears probable, that the azygos process and the sides of the Pyramid applied to it, are so changed, in the progress of life, that they simply constitute the septum between the Sinuses; that the External Side of the Pyramid is also done away, and that the Front Side and the Basis of the Pyramid only remain; constituting the Cornets Sphenoidaux* of M. Bertin.

‘ If this be really the case, the origin of the Sphenoidal Sinuses is very intelligible.’

An account of two heads found in the morass called the Big-bone Lick, and presented to the society by C. Wistar, M. D.

It seems not determined to what animal the first of these heads belonged: it is compared in this memoir, with the Moose, or Cervus Alces, and with the round-horned Elk, but does not appear to be the same with either. The second Dr. Wistar seems to think belonged to the Bison tribe. The comparison is illustrated by plates.

An account of a case of disease, in which one side of the Thorax was at rest, while the other performed the motions of respiration in the usual way. By C. Wistar, M. D.

Upon dissection it appeared that ‘ the cavity of the Thorax which was without motion, was filled with pus. The volume of the lung on that side was greatly diminished, and the cellular structure of the organ entirely done away.

A description of several species of Chondropterigious fishes of North America, with their varieties. By C. A. Le Sueur.

This paper describes the *Petromyzon Americanus* and the *Petromyzon Nigricans* of the order characterized by fixed Branchiæ. —The *Amonocætes bicolor*—The *Accipenser rubicundus*, and the *Accipenser brevirostrum* of the order characterized by free Branchiæ. And another fish of the same order and genus, dubiously named as the *Accipenser oxyrinchus*.

M. Le Sueur is known as the naturalist and friend who accompanied Peron in his voyage to Australasia and the South-Sea.

Investigation of a Theorem, proposed by Dr. Rittenhouse, respecting the Summation of the several Powers of the Sines; with its Application to the Problem of a Pendulum vibrating in circular Arcs. By Owen Nulty, Professor of Mathematics in Dickinson College, Pennsylvania.—Communicated in a letter to Dr. R. M. Patterson,—Read Nov. 15th, 1816.

‘ Carlisle Aug. 12th, 1816.

‘ DEAR SIR,

‘ In the third volume of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, Dr. Rittenhouse mentions, in a letter addressed to your fa-

* ‘ Cornet’ is the word applied by several French anatomists to the Ossa Turbinata of the nose; they seem to have intended to express by it a convoluted lamina or plate of bone.

ther, that he had discovered a very elegant theorem for determining the times of vibration of a pendulum in giving arcs of a circle, and that it depended on another respecting the summation of the several powers of the sines to a given radius. The first of these theorems has never, I believe, been communicated to the public; but the second, which is very remarkable, is announced by Dr. Rittenhouse in the following terms: 'If a fraction, of which the denominator is the index of the given power, and the numerator the same index diminished by unity and multiplied by the square of the radius, be multiplied by the sum of the next but one lower power of the sines, the product will be the sum of the given power.' This curious law, however, was inferred merely from a partial process, and Dr. Rittenhouse concludes his paper by requesting a demonstration of it. As this subject has not been resumed in any of the subsequent volumes of the Transactions, I have thought the following investigation would not be uninteresting to you.'

The above account of the design of the paper by the learned author of it, will sufficiently explain his intention. The mathematical calculations employed in investigating this law, the reader must consult in the volume here reviewed.

A monograph of American insects of the genus Cicindela. By Thomas Say.

This paper presents an elaborate and seemingly a very accurate description of *CICINDELA, vulgaris: hirticollis: unipunctata: sex guttata: dorsalis: marginata: obscura: purpurea: punctulata: formosa: decimnotata: pusilla: violacea: abdominalis: micans*. We are very glad to see this memoir from the pen of one of the best naturalists our country possesses.

Description and Rationale of the operation of a simple apparatus, which may serve as a substitute for the Ship Pump, and which will require no manual labour whatsoever; being a Supplement to the paper No. XXIX. on that subject. By Robert Patterson.—Read, Dec 5, 1817.

DESCRIPTION.

'The apparatus for the purpose announced in the above title, consists of a long hose, made of pretty stiff leather, passing through the stern of the vessel; the inner end furnished with a copper ferrule, and having a valve opening inwards, is to be immersed under the surface of the water in the hold, and the outer end to fall into the water astern of the vessel. This end of the hose is to terminate in a piece of copper tube, of a convenient length, with three or more large holes pierced through its circumference, near the extremity; and to be closed at the end by a moveable lid, projecting a small distance beyond the circumference of the tube. This tube is to be introduced (the lid being removed for the purpose) into a broad metallic socket, (bell-metal or copper) from which project three or more diverging spiral tubes, opening into the socket; which must be made to turn freely, and with as little friction as possible, round the copper tube, and covering the holes perforated through it; the lid being replaced, will prevent the socket from slipping off.

'Round the socket, and behind the projecting spiral tubes, are to be firmly fixed, obliquely, three or more copper vanes, resembling those of a vertical wind-mill.

'Along the surface of the copper tube, in which the hose terminates, may be fixed an oblong sheet of cork, projecting a small distance above

the tube. This will answer two purposes, 1st, by its buoyancy, it will, when the vessel is in motion, prevent the spiral tubes from sinking too much below the surface of the water; and 2dly, it will counteract the tendency which the friction of the socket, turned round by the rotary motion of the vanes striking against the water, will have to twist the leathern hose.

‘That part of the hose which passing through, comes in contact with the stern of the vessel, may be made of a strong, curving, copper tube, by which it may be fastened to the vessel, and thus be prevented from being dragged out or twisted round by the action of the water. Into the upper bend of this part of the hose may be inserted a small diverging copper tube, through which, by means of a funnel, the hose may be filled with water, or the air which may there accumulate, suffered to escape, and may then be stopped with a cork.

‘**RATIONALE OF THE OPERATION.**

‘The hose being previously filled with water, and the vessel under way, the action of the water against the vanes attached to the socket, will, in ordinary circumstances, produce so great a centrifugal velocity in the outer extremities of the spirial tubes as to overcome the external pressure of the water, and produce a current from the water in the hold, on the principles mentioned in the original paper, so long as it covers the inner extremity of the hose. If the motion of the vessel should cease, or become too slow to produce the exhaustion of the water from the hold, then the valve at the inner extremity of the hose will be shut, and the hose remain full, till a favourable change of circumstances shall renew the operation.

‘There is no doubt, that the above apparatus is susceptible of various modifications and improvements, which will readily occur to the practical navigator.

‘A centrifugal pump is not a new idea.—I remember to have seen one in Bucks county, above fifty years ago; constructed by Joseph Ellicot, the father of our associate Andrew Ellicot, by which water was raised from a pretty deep well; for the purpose of irrigation, the rotary motion being communicated to the pump by a simple wind-mill.’

The above contrivance seems applicable to so many useful purposes, that we have thought it expedient to present it to our readers entire.

Abstract and results from 8 annual statements (1809 to 1816) published by the Board of Health of Philadelphia, of the deaths with the diseases, ages, &c. communicated by John Vaughan.

In this valuable set of tables, it appears that of 16000 diseases, *consumption* constitutes 2596. Gout 29. Suicide 36. We suspect many of the diseases were gout, which are registered under other names.

A list of donations closes the volume, which is very creditable to the society from which it emanates.

ART. III.—*Resources of the United States of America; or, A View of the Agricultural, Commercial, Manufacturing, Financial, Political, Literary, Moral, and Religious Capacity and Character of the American People.* By John Bristed, Counsellor at law, New-York.

THIS work, independently of its bulk and title, comes before us with no insignificant pretensions. The author professes to have had it eight years in preparation, which is almost the period prescribed by the Roman poet, and he informs us that he possesses no ordinary requisites for the undertaking. He is a prophet, it seems, for he tells us in his preface, that he foretold the downfall of Napoleon Bonaparte in a work published eight years ago, an honour which, however, he shares with so many other writers both here and elsewhere, that we should think it scarcely worth making a matter of boast. He also professes to be perfectly impartial, and entirely unconnected with either of the great political parties which divide this country. Why he should think it necessary, thus early, to make this profession it is difficult to conceive, unless, as is really the case, there were in the work sufficient indications to the contrary, to create doubts which we apprehend even his own testimony will scarcely invalidate.

Of a writer who has so courteously, and withal so modestly said thus much of himself, it may be worth our while to say a little more, in order that the reader may be made thoroughly acquainted with the singularly happy combination of requisites concentrated in our author for writing an impartial work on the resources, religion, morals, literature, and manners of the American people. We disclaim any intention to indulge in any unwarrantable personality; but without this key to the work, it would be quite impossible for the reader to conceive how a person, writing thus about the United States, could fancy himself impartial.

Mr. Bristed is an Englishman by birth, education, and—modesty, bred, if we are rightly informed, at the university of Oxford, a place singularly distinguished for its learning,

‘ Since all carry thither a little each day,
And we meet with so few who bring any away.’

Some eight years ago, when he took up the business of prophecy, he enlisted all his prospective wisdom and inspired enthusiasm in the service of his then liege lord of England, in a book to which he frequently refers in his present work, when it is by no means necessary. In that book he raved with most horrible fluency against the French, and indeed all those Jacobin cut-throats, democrats, and infidels, that dared to disbelieve England was not the only redoubtable champion of religion and human rights in this mundane sphere. That he has not even yet abjured any of these amusing doctrines, or lost any of the feelings he then cherished, appears with sufficient certainty from his frequent references to this work, which he most certainly would not have thus called from oblivion, to bear testimony to any opinions which had subsequently been renounced.

Since that period he has undergone a metamorphosis, as we infer from his taking such frequent occasion, when making any assertion peculiarly unjust or absurd, to speak of this country, as 'our country;'—and most especially from his announcing himself as a counsellor at law. Nevertheless we are not going to find fault with him for at length thinking this country worthy of his adoption; nor will we allow ourselves to smile even in secret at his dedicating his book to a learned chancellor, and praising a learned governor, both of the state in which he has commenced the practice of the law. The author is, 'can he help it, a special attorney,' and it is good to have friends at court. We have felt it our duty to say thus much of a writer who in the course of his work, while affecting to call this 'our country,' and to speak of it in the spirit becoming a citizen of the United States, has managed most adroitly, as he thinks, to reiterate most of the principal calumnies of his countrymen, and to do us more injury than all his predecessors, under the assumed guise of our fellow-citizen. We deemed it necessary to expose him in his real character, as an Englishman, cherishing all the vulgar prejudices of his most bigotted countrymen, lest some of his readers in this country should really suspect him of impartiality; and shall now proceed to notice the mighty mass which he has offered to our consideration, first remarking its general deficiencies as a work pretending to give new information as to the *present state* of our resources.

The magnitude of the interests, moral and political, involved in the development of the energies of this great country, though in some measure foreseen, is in general but imperfectly understood. The more enlightened part of mankind indeed begin to look forward to some propitious period, when the wisdom of our institutions, and the happy influence of our example, may afford to distressed nations the evidence of successful experience, and press the weight of conviction by their own irresistible energy. But the true causes of our prosperity, their comparative operation at different periods of our history, as checked or accelerated by events, and the reasonable prospects of the future, from the certain experience of the past, have not as yet met with that faithful and sagacious investigation which their very striking importance demands. In Europe, some sort of prescience as to the future glories of this rising republic—a republic that in time promises to excel whatever of reality has reached us in the annals of Greece and Rome, because her example will be more beneficial to mankind, has of late discovered itself in the eagerness with which all that relates to the United States is circulated and received. A more particular exposition and examination of the results flowing from public measures, and from the application of individual and collective industry to the physical circumstances of our situation, would, we think, afford to legislators instruction, and to nations a practical commentary on their truest interests.

This great political lesson is but ill supplied in the work before us. The statements are mostly of old date; the returns borrowed

from works long ago known to the public. No official documents, no new facts or conclusions, are brought forward to justify a new publication. We had looked for original information on a subject marked by a constant variation of features. But no such thing. The author had no new discovery in political economy to announce, and he has given us no new facts to sustain or illustrate his theory. That he should thus content himself with giving to the public what the public long before possessed, we cannot help thinking a piece of most unexampled generosity, as well as a voluntary sacrifice of time and expense. Should wonders not haply have ceased, and this book come to a second edition, we must insist, in behalf of the literary community, that it be altogether new modelled, the speculations upon England, the view of society, literature, and manners in this country, his anecdotes and small talk, his sectional politics, and his roarings against the French, be forthwith irrevocably expunged, and the residue served as the sagacious physician did the cucumbers his patient had prepared with such elaborate solicitude. The statistics of Mr. Pitkin, with a few other books familiar to every reader in the United States, contain all the real information of the work before us; and it is quite unnecessary to pay for the repetition of a tale twice told.

The reader will look in vain in this work for what he probably expected in a book of five hundred pages, announced under such an imposing title. Though aware of the talents of Mr. Bristed, we had allowed ourselves to hope for accurate details of the amount of tonnage at the several ports, the value of imports and exports, distinguishing the different articles, to the latest period, which would have afforded a valuable supplement to Mr. Pitkin's tables, and furnished some light to enable us to judge of the effects of universal peace on our trade. We looked for the amount of duties collected at the different custom-houses, specifying their origin; the number of persons engaged in maritime pursuits, distinguishing the fisheries, the seamen in our public vessels agreeably to the returns in the navy department, the complement of our ships of war, their stations, with the number now building, the navy yards, foundries of cannon, armories, manufactories of gunpowder, the amount of the military force in detail, with its general distribution, and the number of our militia—for every thing, in fact, which, from a book of the size and title of the work before us, we had a right to expect. But grievous was the disappointment of our expectations, and grievously should the author answer for his deficiencies.

He may urge perhaps in his defence, that such information is not accessible to a person who does not choose to go to the seat of government for it, a piece of condescension hardly to be expected from a writer who seriously affirms in his present work, that 'it is almost impossible that there ever can be a wise and efficient administration of the American government while its seat continues at Washington.' The unequalled simplicity and presumption of this assertion, and the reasons he gives for it, we shall expose more

particularly in the proper place. All we will say at present on the subject is, that if Mr. Bristed did not know how, or did not choose to take the trouble, to gain the information which alone can justify the publication of such an expensive work, he ought, in justice to himself and his readers, to have spared our country the additional burthen of sustaining such a weight of stale lumber as he has thus piled upon her.

After these general observations, we shall endeavour with due labour and pains to decompose the multifarious materials of this weighty heterogeneous mass, and reduce them to simple elements.

The geographical advantages of our situation are such, that the most superficial observer, who casts a look at futurity, may safely indulge the most sanguine predictions, that the highest rank among agricultural and commercial nations is our birthright. Placed between two oceans, and with one of our *future* borders on the Pacific, nearer to India and China than any European nation, we seem destined to outstrip every other in the race of enterprise and prosperity. The genius of the people for maritime pursuits displays itself in fearlessly embarking on the most distant and perilous enterprises—the perfection of their ships—their safety combined with swiftness—the skill with which they are navigated—and the deadly efficacy with which they are fought. The amount too of agricultural wealth, at all times increasing, has no bounds, as in Europe, and the decided tendency of the population to traverse westward in search of new lands, promises at no distant period to realize the wish of a free communication with the Pacific Ocean. The hunter is on the track—the woodcutter is at his heels—and the new settler purchases as he recedes, and acquires permanent dominion over a region without boundary, and without limits.

With these propensities in the nation—with the evidence of such qualities inherent in a people endowed with uncommon penetration and intelligence—universally educated—skilled in all the operative employments and useful arts—brave, but humane—possessing a thorough knowledge of the invaluable blessings they enjoy—nursed in the lap of Liberty, and jealous of prerogative—enterprising in the pursuits of peace as well as war—judicious to plan what they execute with vigour and celerity: with all these characteristics and constituents of greatness—such a people, in such circumstances, must and will, fill an orb of primary magnitude. But after all, the main cause to which we are to look for the present prosperity, and future glory of the United States, is to be found in the nature of our government, which combines all the best principles favourable to human liberty—discards all those favourable to aristocracy—guards against the encroachments of executive power, and at the same time, checks the extravagance of popular feeling in such a way, as to prevent its excesses from endangering the Constitution. In this view, it does seem to all human prudence, prepared in wisdom, fortified by experience, confirmed by practice, and as might be expected, supported with zeal and firmness. It is a government calculated above all others to gain pro-

selytes, as being economical—unfelt in its pressure—securing to each and all, the free enjoyment of the fruits of their labours—the produce of their property—recognizing no distinctions but such as spring from a difference of virtue and talent, and protecting the meanest citizen in the exercise of his religious and political opinions.

The moral effects of this devotion to a system of government, appealing thus forcibly to the hearts of men in all countries, and attaching its citizens so peculiarly to itself—to conciliate, in short, the suffrages of all mankind—have been too generally overlooked, as forming a most important item in the resources of the United States of America. They seem not to have entered into the comprehension of Mr. Bristed, and we have therefore been induced merely to hint at them, as forming, in our opinion, a most essential object of any work pretending to develop the sources of our present strength and prosperity, the causes of our future grandeur, and the means of our permanent safety. It is sufficient to hint at the fact, of that proneness to desertion exhibited by British soldiers and sailors, whenever they touch the soil of our country, to see at once, the moral effect of the universal opinion among the poor and middling classes of every country where the name of America has ever been heard, that this is the home of the poor man, and the refuge of the oppressed.

Having pointed out the general deficiencies of this work, we will now proceed to give the titles of each chapter, in succession, making such observations as occurred to us in the course of a cursory examination. It is but fair, however, to state here, what we before omitted unintentionally, that Mr. Bristed expressly disavows any intention of giving us ‘a statistical view of the United States.’ His object, he says, ‘is merely to give a *brief* outline of the physical, intellectual, and moral character, capacity, and *resources* of the United States, with an entire determination to steer clear of all undue bias for or against either of the great contending political parties, which divide, agitate, and govern this ever-widening republic.’ Having done the author this justice, we will take the liberty of observing, it appears a little singular that such being his intention merely, he has thought proper to swell his work into five hundred pages, for such is the size of this ‘*brief outline*,’ by incorporating with it an hundred pages of statistics copied literally from Mr. Pitkin and others. Nay, we will make free to ask him further, why he gave his book the high sounding title of ‘*Resources of the United States of America; or a View of the Agricultural, Commercial, Manufacturing, Financial, &c.* capacity of the American people.’ We are at a loss, simple as we are, to conceive how a work deserving such a magnificent title-page, could be otherwise than a statistical work; since statistical tables could alone afford data to enable the author to arrive at just conclusions.

The ‘introductory remarks’ consist of honest truisms and common place matter, remarkable only for being delivered in a clumsy, verbose, and inflated style, occasionally diversified with

such rare phrases, as ‘rapidly-rising;’ ‘humorously-speaking;’ ‘ocean-chain;’ ‘broad source of ignorance;’ ‘bursting with vice and folly;’ ‘slang;’ and many others—quos nunc prescribere longum est. In it we find a considerable deal of information, familiar to every person we presume, who is expected to read this work. We learn, that this country is destined to become exceedingly powerful, that it possesses great facilities for internal and external commerce—that besides the Atlantic states, the new empire in the west has two thousand miles of lake, one thousand miles of gulf, and one hundred thousand miles of internal ship and boat navigation, and that the whole country is one continued intersection of rivers, communicating with each other: the very information without a single addition, and delivered almost in the very words of Mr. Brown, in his preface to the *Western Gazetteer*. Indeed, and in honest truth, our author seems to have waited and watched patiently, during the eight years employed in compiling his book, to catch every thing that appeared in print, which could be useful to his purpose, and to have pressed it into his service just as he found it, without giving himself the trouble of either disguising the plagiarism, or deserving our forgiveness, by adding something valuable of his own. There is certainly no harm in gaining knowledge in this way, but we see no particular reason why a writer should think proper to publish a book of five hundred pages, without either adding to the stock of public information, or public amusement. The works from which he has copied (perhaps it would be more polite to say, borrowed) his information, are within the reach of all, and we fancy, are just as likely to be read as that of the *citizen* Bristed.

Having thus given us a specimen of style exceedingly unfortunate, when we are aware that he is about to act the part of critic in the course of his work, and a sample of his information not less unlucky, our author proceeds to attribute the want of correct information abroad concerning the United States, which he proposes to supply, to the unfounded narratives of travellers; a sentiment in which all must concur, and all have of late concurred. Of course we are not indebted to Mr. B. for any new information on this head. But not content with this honest truism, he couples it immediately with its contrast, by roundly asserting that the overcharged descriptions of the advantages we possess, are given by persons frustrated in their pernicious hopes at home, and sometimes smarting from the recent scourge; men who have been arraigned at the bar of justice in their own land, as traitors and felons, and who exchanged the well-merited gallows for an ignominious exile. These, and these alone, it seems, are the writers who have praised this country, as the seat of superior purity and universal happiness.

We will here take leave to retort the charge of misrepresentation full upon Mr. Bristed, in thus broadly stating what has no foundation in fact. We demand of him to name what writer under any of these circumstances, is known to the public as the author of a book of travels in this country. We summon him to adduce one solitary fact in support of his unwarranted assertion, and in

justification of this illiberal stigma thus attempted to be cast on unfortunate men, whom a great majority of his fellow-subjects, and a still greater majority of his fellow-citizens know to have been innocent victims of a relentless system of oppression. If he cannot do this, we shall without hesitation place this arrogant assertion to the earnest desire, every where actively employed under cover of affected impartiality, of casting a stigma upon certain republican principles cherished by our people, and upon the people themselves, by thus openly insinuating that the writers who have spoken most favourably of them, were traitors and fugitives from justice, who praised our country only to be revenged on England. Such however is the great mass of this work—a regular alternation of contrast between well known and obvious truths, generally made the basis of erroneous reasonings, and absurd general conclusions from assumed facts, of which we have no proof. He very seldom, we have observed, reasons right but from wrong premises, and hardly ever arrives at a just conclusion, except through the medium of a chain of reasoning most preposterously independent of the facts on which it is founded. We will instance a case in point, which will explain what we mean. It occurs in the fifth chapter, treating of the laws of the United States. The author says, ‘a crime committed in one state is not punishable in another.’ ‘Under such circumstances,’ he adds, ‘the only chance of punishing the culprit, lies in a provision of the federal constitution, which “declares that a person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who flies from justice, and is found in another state, shall on demand of the executive authority from whence he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.”’

Now this is one of those facts known to all. It is noticed by M. Beaujour as a great defect in our system, and if we mistake not, he instances the very case cited by our author, as a proof of the ill consequences of this pretended peculiarity in our laws. From the fact, however, Mr. Bristed as usual, draws conclusions that have in no instance resulted from it, and in imitation of M. Beaujour, adduces a case having no application whatever to the subject, namely, that of Gen. Hamilton who was killed in a duel in the state of New-Jersey, by Mr. Burr, an inhabitant and citizen of New-York.

The same clause of the constitution alluded to, which directs the state executive to surrender a criminal, also enacts that ‘the citizens of each state shall exercise all the privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.’ It follows that they can, and do, in every case procure the issue of warrants to take into custody criminals in every part of the United States, escaping from another part. When lodged in jail, a demand is made of the executive officer to deliver them up, in order that they may be tried where alone they ought to be tried—at home, where they committed the crime; where if guilty, the proofs of their guilt are most likely to be obtained, and if innocent, they stand the best chance

of acquittal. This is entirely analogous to the law of England, as it stood until the parliament passed an act, under which Mr. Justice Johnson was shipped to England to be tried for a crime alleged to have been committed in Ireland. It is, in fact, nothing more than limiting the jurisdiction of a magistrate to a state, as it is limited in England to a county. There is no instance cited of a criminal escaping in consequence of this law, for as we shall now proceed to prove, the case of Gen. Hamilton has nothing to do with the subject. The sole cause why Mr. Burr was not apprehended in the state of New-York, and afterwards in other states where he remained was, that no person felt sufficient interest in the case to take upon themselves the trouble of the prosecution; for notwithstanding all that Mr. Bristed can say on the subject, the public does, and we hope always will make a distinction between duelling and midnight assassinations. We assert that no criminal has ever escaped justice in the United States, in consequence of this pretended peculiarity in our legal system. A writer blind to these distinctions, or capable of distorting them to his purpose, is certainly not particularly qualified to write a commentary on our laws, or to suggest improvements.

The author is more to be relied on when he repeats what several American writers have truly asserted before him, that the travellers who have erred in the other extreme by giving false and unfavourable opinions of the state of this country, and the character of its inhabitants, were generally governed either by prejudice, or disappointment in their ridiculous and inflated notions of perfection, which no country ever did, or ever will realize. He speaks truly of Parkinson, Ashe, Moore, and Jansen, whose misrepresentations were heretofore detected and exposed in a variety of publications; while at the same time he recommends the reader to consult M. Beaujour, one of the most illiberal of the tribe. Mr. Birkbeck, it seems may also be consulted with advantage, 'with the exception of some jacobin slang against England,' as the author terms it, with his usual politeness of phrase.

Mr. Bristed then concludes his introductory remarks by stating that his great object in this work is not what he before avowed, as we have just quoted, but, 'to give a faithful portrait, a living likeness of the habits, and condition of our enterprising, intelligent, spirited, aspiring people, that *must* be ere long, and *ought* before this period to have been better known and more justly appreciated by the potentates, and nations of Europe.' This is a laudable intention, and we will proceed to show how he has contrived to make the work answer a purpose directly at variance with his professed intention.

The first chapter, treating of the 'aspect, agriculture, population, &c.' of the United States, opens with a reference to the writers who have furnished the most authentic and particular accounts of the economy and politicks proposed to be considered. And even here at the outset he is guilty of an inexcusable omission, in not cautioning the reader as to their deficiency as guides to a

knowledge of the actual present state of the country. He should have stated that many of these works were written several years ago, and that the rapid march of this nation has left them little other distinction than that of faithful chronicles of past times, rather than accurate representations of the present. This caution might however have given birth to an awkward query, why Mr. Bristed, in his laborious and great work of eight years, had not thought proper to supply these deficiencies, and it was perhaps good policy to be silent on this head. Mr. Bristed then proceeds to notice the great physical capacities of wealth and greatness in our *home* territory, and the noble aspect which nature has given to it, as calculated to enlarge and elevate the mind by its boldness and magnificence; denying at the same time, that much stress is to be laid upon the grand disposition of natural scenery, as regulating or affecting the moral and political character of the people.

‘President Montesquieu, and other political philosophers, (besides M. Brissot de Warville and Mr. Gilbert,) do indeed, attribute much of national character to *physical* circumstance, as scenery, soil, climate, &c. But the physical circumstances of Greece and Rome are the *same* now, as in the days of Pericles and Plato, of Cæsar and Cicero. Yet how different now are the *Men* of Athens and Rome—*quantum mutatus ab illo Hectore!* Such is the quickening power of *liberty*, not only to render man, individually, great and powerful, but also, to render his country, for its allotted hour, lord of the ascendant over other nations; while *despotism* debases the individual citizens into slaves, and makes their country the vassal of vassals. Witness Greece, once the pride and terror of the world, now a bondwoman to the ignorant and barbarous Turk;—witness Rome, once mistress of the earth, now, the miserable asylum of a cumbrous superstition, decaying even to the last faint gleam of extinction.

‘Prior to the reign of the Imperial Charles the fifth, *Spain* was the *freest* nation in Europe; the power of her kings was guardedly limited; all orders were admitted to an equal representation in the diet; she maintained an entire independence on the Roman Church; she engaged and excelled in every walk of literature; science, and erudition; she influenced and controlled every other European sovereignty. Now, she is the forlorn and abject slave of papal superstition, the victim of the inquisition—dark, ignorant, helpless—a prey to the most despicable civil and religious bondage. Yet the plains of Castile and Arragon show as wide a champaign, and the range of the Pyrenees, the chain of the Sierra Morena, and the mountains of the Asturias, lift their heads as proudly to the skies, now in the darkest hour of Spanish thralldom and degradation, as in her brightest day of civil and religious liberty, chivalric heroism, and mental illumination. The character of nations, therefore, is formed, *not* by physical, but by *moral* causes and influences, as government, religion, laws, and education—which will, hereafter be shown at length.’

From this passage it would appear, perhaps, that Mr. Bristed used the word freedom, as conveying the ideas of an American citizen, with respect to human liberty. It may, therefore, be proper to put the reader on his guard, by observing once for all, that *his* notions of freedom are entirely founded on his ideas of the

perfection of the British government, as it is now administered. We shall find that every alteration or amendment proposed by him, for the benefit of his *fellow-citizens* of the United States is calculated to bring our system to a closer resemblance to that of Great Britain. In proof of this assertion, we will quote the following passages as amply sufficient for our present purpose, reserving a notice of others in the order in which they occur.

‘The free governments of continental Europe, to be sure, were overthrown, and for a while destroyed by the force and fraud of revolutionary France, who, with the most rigid impartiality, restored all her vassal states to their pristine condition of poverty, barbarism, and bondage; such as shrouded the whole of Christendom in Cimmerian darkness, before commerce and wealth had poured in their streams of civilization, intelligence, and freedom. But Britain, who was enabled by the prompt and permanent power of her government, and by the characteristic energy of her people, to ride out in safety and triumph the revolutionary storm and tempest, which scattered the wrecks of the other European governments over all the ocean of ruin, has uniformly increased in the strength of her executive, and in the liberty and refinement of her people, in proportion as private and public wealth has been diffused throughout all her dominions.’

‘The *first* requisite, the most essential foundation of all good government, the full preservation of personal liberty, and private property, which may be considered as the sheet-anchor of human society, is provided for in a most eminent degree by *all* the American constitutions, both State and Federal. But *not one* of them all gives a sufficient scope and permanency of power to its executive, *nor* sufficiently provides for the development of the national mind, on a scale of large and liberal information. Whence, consequently, every individual in the United States is called upon to provide, to the utmost of his ability, in his own personal vigilance over the best interests of religion and morals, for the deficient power and energy of the government. In most other countries, the government is all and the people nothing; whence they exhibit the melancholy spectacle of capricious tyrants on the one hand, and the suffering slaves of oppression and ignorance on the other;—whereas, in the United States, it is nearly the reverse: the people are all, and the government nothing; which is the *excess* of liberty, and imposes severer obligations of duty on every free citizen to watch over the welfare of the public, the most permanent props and buttresses of which welfare are the strict preservation and general diffusion of pure religion and sound morals, throughout all the different orders of the community.’

Our limits will not allow us to specify particularly the contents of every chapter of this work, and we will conclude our notice of chapter the first, by merely stating that it contains no information whatever concerning agriculture, and that it is deplorably deficient in every thing, except repetitions of old arguments, originally urged by the champions of Executive prerogative during the disputes which preceded, and followed the adoption of the Federal Constitution. It concludes with a reference to works well known, for all necessary information, and to one not well known, namely, ‘The Resources of the British empire.’ We should marvel a little at being thus referred for information concerning the United

States, to a work professedly treating of Great Britain, did we not know that it was written by our author himself, and that probably no other person in the United States would have taken the trouble to remind the reader of its existence.

Chapter the second treats of the commerce of the United States, which subject is dispatched by the insertion of a few of Mr. Pitkin's Tables;—by a reference to that gentleman's work for further information; and concludes with the following high sounding panegyric on his native country—exceedingly applicable, no doubt, to the subject of which he was treating.

‘Nevertheless, so immense is her capital, so excellent her manufactures, so persevering the industry of her people, so vigorous and all-pervading her government, that her *foreign* trade is rapidly improving, more particularly with the Brazils, the Baltic, Italy, and the East-Indies. In the most prosperous days her foreign commerce did *not* make an *eleventh* part of her home and colonial trade; for the gradual progress and amount of the British trade, alike in the Isles, the colonies, and all the quarters of the world, for the last hundred years; See the “Resources of the British Empire,” pp. 122—140, both inclusive; and pp. 399—450.’

‘It appears necessary for England, now, to make some extraordinary effort to recruit her exhausted strength, and to relieve her present pressure. She has, indeed, during the lapse of five and twenty years, directed, with a daring and a steady hand, the vast resources of her mighty empire, against the common enemy of the human race: with the guardianship of presiding genius, she has aided the weak and restrained the encroachments of the strong: she has assisted the *people* of continental Europe in their patriotic efforts to trample beneath their feet the foreign domination of an invading foe; she has caused the star of Napoleon to fade into a dim tinct; she has put together the glittering fragments of disjointed Europe, and given again to that fair portion of the world the beamings of religion, the light of morals, and the beauty of social order. But her recent glories have led her to a painful pre-eminence; henceforth she is doomed to the proud but melancholy necessity of being *first*, or *nothing*. The moment she recedes—the moment she bows her lofty head beneath the ascendancy of any other nation—that moment she is dashed from off her wide ambitious base, and falls, like Lucifer, never to rise again. In her late protracted conflict, her frame has been shattered; her finances are dilapidated; her agriculture languishes; her manufactures droop; her commerce is diminished; her population impoverished; and, if she hopes to sustain that high eminence which her achievements have reached, in the times of Elizabeth, of William, and of her present sovereign—achievements which have rendered her the arbitress of Europe, the bulwark of civil and religious liberty, and the tutelary angel of man; she must hasten to emancipate the Spanish American colonists, and unite the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. Unless some measures be adopted by Britain to employ and relieve her superabundant and indigent population, a much greater proportion than has ever yet left her native isles will find their way hither, to augment the number of our American citizens.’

Chapter the third treats of the manufactures of the United States, and is if possible more meagre in specific information than

the preceding. Of the present state of manufactures, nothing is said that is in the least satisfactory. The author strenuously, and in the true spirit of a faithful subject of his Britannic Majesty, advises the Americans not to be in haste to encourage domestic manufactures, they being the hotbed, which produces those detestable ‘bands of Luddites, and Spenseans, jacobins, anarchists, *rebels*, and assassins, that continually put to test the strength, and strain the nerves of her government.’ By these, we presume, our author means those unfortunate people who would not starve quietly, and with a due regard to the decorum becoming his Majesty’s faithful subjects. It concludes as usual with a reference to ‘Resources of the British Empire,’ by Mr. Bristed. Our author reminds us of Sylvester Daggerwood, the Dunstable actor, who never met any body without thrusting in their faces a play bill for his benefit night.

Chapter the fourth treats of the finances of the United States, and opens in the true spirit of a loyal Englishman, by strenuously recommending ‘a due weight of internal taxation,’ among other purposes, for furnishing an ample fund ‘for rewarding long tried and faithful public services’—that is to say, to support a long list of sinecures, pensions, placemen, &c.—Vide England. He then proceeds to state that Mr. Monroe has now a noble opportunity ‘of being in *fact* President of the United States,’ by being wise, ‘and establishing a *permanent system of internal taxation*.’ In the midst of a delectable reverie on this delightful subject, our author is suddenly awakened to a sense of extreme mortification, at finding that Mr. Monroe has lost all chance of becoming in *fact* President of the United States, by having ‘actually in his message of December 2d 1817, recommended to Congress the *repeal* of all internal taxes!’ He then rubs his eyes and wisely exclaims in the true spirit of a tax-ridden Englishman—‘There is indeed an *awful* tendency in all parties of the American people, to what, by a miserable misnomer is called *economy*!’

His great doctrine on the subject of internal taxation is, that as the resources of the State which are drawn from imposts on importations, are necessarily limited at those times when the State has most need of ample revenues, it is necessary, that the system of internal taxation should be kept up, when it is not necessary, in order that it may be at hand when it is necessary. This we know is the English doctrine, and the English practice, but we must be permitted to observe, that the people of the United States, are not exactly the kind of people to become accustomed to unnecessary taxation, and that the best way of reconciling them to taxes, is only to levy them when they are absolutely required, and repeal them promptly when they have ceased to be so. It is this which best reconciles them to burthens; and it is by the confidence they feel, that they will be promptly relieved by their representatives whenever the exigencies of the State will permit, which will at all times conciliate them into an acquiescence in a system of taxation they know to be necessary. We are here again

referred to the example of England, with as much confidence, as if that example was not sufficient to deter imitation by its baneful effects, for proof of the beneficial consequences of an inexorable system of internal taxation.

The army of England it seems is kept up by this system, and so far from Mr. Bristed thinking the liberties of that nation endangered by cantoning 100,000 men upon the people, he affirms, 'If they perish at all, they will perish under the daggers of her democracy!' In truth we are sorry to see such doctrines, marked by an equal degree of arrogance and absurdity, given to the world under the pretended character of an American citizen. We wish Mr. Bristed would conform to his own doctrine, when he reprobates the impropriety of foreigners interfering with our internal government—and we now clearly and explicitly warn him against any future attempt, to play the citizen, and undermine our republican institutions, by applying the maxims and practice of an antiquated despotism, to our beloved country.

Let England, if she will, maintain an army to keep down the beating pulse of oppressed millions struggling for freedom and for bread. Let her, if she will—we do not want her example, except to show us what we are to avoid. Let her hold an immense force at the disposal of her sovereign in a time of profound peace. It is necessary to keep down the throb of freedom in that country—it is a part of the system of the holy league to suppress the growing spirit of disaffection to monarchy, which now pervades all Europe. It originates in the practical experience of a Prince, who is thus forced to employ the wealth of the people, in forging their own chains. Without stepping aside to combat the doctrine of Mr. Bristed, of the necessity of permanent taxes to support a system of public credit, we will content ourselves with stating, that the publick credit of the United States at present, stands on a foundation far more secure and unincumbered, than that of any European power; a conclusion that forces itself upon the mind after an attentive comparison, and review of our financial history. The chapter concludes with the following remarks, certainly very natural to our author in his character of a British subject, but according, not altogether, we should think, with his *other* character, his *alias*, of American citizen.

'Why does not England, as part of the indemnity due to her from Spain, transfer to her own sceptre the sovereignty of Cuba; seeing that the Havana commands the passage from the Gulf of Mexico? Why does she not take possession of Panama on the south, and Darien on the north, and join the waters of the Atlantic with those of the Pacific Ocean, in order to resuscitate her drooping commerce? Or is it her intention still to slumber on, until she is awakened from the stupefaction of her dreams by the final fall of Spanish America, and of her own North American provinces, beneath the ever-widening power of the United States;—and by the floating of the Russian flag, in token of Russian sovereignty, over the Grecian Archipelago, and on the towers of Constantinople? Are all her national glories to be blotted out in one hemisphere, by a power but recently emerged from the snows and barbarism

of the North; and in the other hemisphere, to be trampled into the dust by the gigantic footsteps of her own child? Is the heathen mythology of Jupiter and Saturn to be verified in the nineteenth century?

‘The island of Cuba would soon exhibit another, and a better aspect, under the vigorous dominion of Britain, than she now presents, under the forlorn and beggarly government of Spain. By her free and equal laws, by the weight of her capital, by the skill, industry, spirit, and enterprise of her people, Britain would soon render that island a powerful nation in itself, and a most valuable outwork of her own maritime empire. By the possession of Panama and Darien, and the junction of the Atlantic with the Pacific Ocean, England might command the commerce of the east and west, and pour such a flood-tide of wealth over all her home territory as would relieve her people from the pressure of their national burdens, and give to their productive labour an unimpeded course, and an abundant recompense. Doubtless, the proposals made to the British government, in the years 1792 and 1798, by the Spanish American delegates, for the emancipation of their country, and the junction of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and which have been already adverted to in a preceding chapter, on the Commerce of the United States, are to be found in the office of the Secretary for Foreign Affairs, in London.

‘Notwithstanding the shattered state of the European systems of finance, and the consequent weakness of the governments of Europe, it is more than ever incumbent upon the United States to lay the foundation of an ample, permanent, and growing *internal* revenue, arising from *home taxation*; because, whenever Europe becomes generally embroiled again, America will find that she *now* fills too large a space in the eye of the world to preserve her neutrality, and to keep aloof from the conflict. In spite of the apparent calm, the elements of an approaching tempest are every where visible in the European horizon. There are no symptoms of contiguous health and long life in the coalition of the allied sovereigns. Russia already exhibits signs of jealousy at the naval preponderance and commercial influence of Britain; while England is alarmed at the enormous strides of the Russian government towards absolute ascendancy on the continent of Europe; she refuses to join, and looks with apprehension on the Holy League, whose *avowed* principles are so extremely simple, not to say childish, that they cannot fail to rouse the suspicion of every one that is acquainted with the steady, strait-forward progress by which Russia has enlarged her territory, swollen her population, and augmented her power, during the last hundred years. Austria and Prussia both tremble at the overgrown greatness of their imperial neighbour; and see, in the increase of that greatness, the forerunner of their own doom.

‘Meanwhile France, whose habitual intrigue and diplomatic cunning never sleeps, whatever be the form of her government, will labour incessantly to sow the seed and ripen the harvest of dissension among the coalesced sovereigns; and will strain every nerve to embroil Britain with Russia and America, that she herself may profit amidst the general confusion. The United States will be called upon to take sides in the European contest; and they will, both government and people, range themselves *against* England, whom they *hate* with all their heart, and soul, and strength; as their naval and commercial rival, who must, at all events, be exterminated. They must, therefore, build up their financial system on a broad basis, in order to maintain a long and desperate strug-

gle—since the British lion will not yield in subjection, while a drop of blood plays around and warms his heart; he will not lie down in bondage until the whole lifetime shall have been drained from out his veins.’

We beg the reader to consider this passage attentively, and then seriously ask himself the question whether we have been unjust in ascribing to this writer the assumption of a character to which he had no claim. We ask him whether it does not carry with it a conviction that he affects a community of cause and of feeling with the people of the United States, the better, the more safely, and effectually to aid the cause of our enemies. We make the charge and appeal to the public to stand umpire.

The fifth chapter treats of the government, policy, laws, &c. of the United States, and contains much speculative matter, for most of which we are indebted to preceding writers on these subjects. The commencement of the chapter is however, we believe entirely original, in as much as it recommends the study of Plato and Xenophon merely to learn the ‘imperfection of political science in their time.’ The author next proceeds to treat of elections, and to find fault with their frequency, *as well as the general extension* of the right of suffrage, the mode of voting by ballot, &c.* Without entering into a discussion of these questions, we feel ourselves authorized in again repeating that all the alterations and remedies suggested, are perfectly in character with the rest of the book, and calculated to undermine the constitution. He is for making the representative more independent of the people, for the benefit of the people’s happiness, thus securing their rights by infringing their privileges. And his reason for it is particularly complimentary to our system of government, which is entirely founded on the sovereignty of the people. ‘These,’ he says, ‘who are entirely dependent on the people can seldom render any essential service to the state by the wisdom and firmness of their legislation.’ Yet he affects republicanism, and praises freedom. He also reprobates the custom of voting by ballot; for though in general a great admirer of our system, scarcely any part of it pleases him in detail. Mr. Brister roundly asserts, that ‘voting by ballot, excludes the open wholesome influence of property,’ by which is meant, it prevents the rich from overawing and improperly influencing the suffrages of the labourers, who in all countries are more or less liable to be influenced, by their dependence on the wealthy for employment. It was to prevent this ‘wholesome influence of property,’ as the author calls it, that the system of voting by ballot, was devised, and we are very much mistaken, if what he considers a defect in the system, will not be held by every lover of freedom, a salutary precaution for the security of human rights. When in conclusion he broadly asserts that ‘the frauds practised by the substitution of one set of ballots for another in every electioneering campaign throughout the country are in themselves innumerable and shameless;’ and that the suc-

* The author in the plenitude of his simplicity probably never heard that the electors voted *viva voce* in Virginia.

cess of elections *generally* depends upon this adroitness of intrigue, he asserts what he adduces no testimony to prove, and what cannot be proved by a reference to any authentic sources of information. We protest against these sweeping charges, impeaching the purity of our elections, and demand of Mr. Bristed such proof as cannot be questioned, under penalty of being branded as a calumniator. Neither he, or any other man has a right to throw this stain on our country, unless he can produce undeniable evidences of the fact. It is not a charge to be embodied in a work pretending to impartiality, on the mere authority of Mr. Bristed, repeating the invectives of party newspapers against each other, at a time of great public excitement, when the disappointed party often endeavours to tarnish the victory of its adversary, by insisting that it was not fairly gained.

It is quite impossible to notice every thing in this and the succeeding chapters of the work which ought to be exposed, and treated with well merited severity. But there are some passages it would be unpardonable not to place before the reader. Among these is the following singular and original theory of citizen Bristed. Speaking of the present seat of government, he affirms, that 'It is almost impossible that there can ever be a wise and efficient administration of the American government, while its seat is at Washington; because no practical information upon any subject of importance to the well-being of the community *can* be obtained there.'—He adds—'No statesmen or merchants reside at Washington, and neither public or private libraries are to be found there.' It is scarcely, we imagine, possible for any writer living, but our author, to embody a greater degree of conceit and ignorance, in the compass in which it is condensed, in this brief sentence.

Can an author who has modestly assumed the high prerogative of sitting in judgment on the policy, laws, character, resources, and *literature* of the United States—to consign in fact by his simple fiat, the claims of our statesmen, scholars and literary men to fame or oblivion, possibly be ignorant that though the public library was burnt by the British, during the late war, it has been replaced by that of Mr. Jefferson? Had Mr. Bristed taken the trouble to inquire into this matter, before he thus consigned our government to perpetual ignorance, he would have been informed that this library was purchased by the nation—that it is one of the most valuable to the statesman, as well as to the scholar, to be found in the United States—and that it has been two years established at the city of Washington, and accessible to every member of the government. The same easy and prompt mode of remedying ignorance, would also have enabled him to state that each of the departments, has a small select collection of the best books relating to the peculiar functions of the department, and that the secretary to the navy, one of the cabinet ministers, has always been selected from the class of merchants. The assertion that no statesmen reside at Washington, where all the heads of department re-

side, is fraught with such a degree of simplicity,* that we acquit Mr. Bristed of the sin of knowing exactly what he meant, when he pronounced this sweeping condemnation.

The *impartial* author of the *Resources of the United States*, then proceeds gravely to affirm, that the real and efficient cause for the seat of government being fixed at Washington, was to give free play for the exercise of Virginia influence, to acquire complete ascendancy over the other portions of the Union. Perhaps Mr. Bristed in the plenitude of his extensive and accurate information, was not aware that the fixing of the seat of government at Washington, was the favourite project of the almost faultless man whose name it bears; and that it was by his influence in a great measure, that the thing was accomplished. Does this conceited and arrogant foreigner, cloaked in his mantle of citizenship, mean to insinuate that this great, pure and disinterested man was governed by such unworthy views, and that he was a tool of Virginia influence? The imputation is as insulting as it is groundless, and could only proceed from the malignant folly of a writer, one of whose great objects, whatever he may have avowed, is to excite jealousies, and heart-burnings among the members of this great and happy confederation, by the repetition of antiquated charges, that have long fallen into merited contempt; and are only occasionally revived to foster the views of unprincipled ambition, or to gratify the malice of some splenetick enemy of the national prosperity.

It is in this spirit the writer of the work before us, proceeds to administer poisons, to the different sections of the United States, and to insult them at the same time, by a charge of subserviency to the views of the state of Virginia. By some mysterious policy it seems, Virginia, to use the words of the worthy and patriotic, and truly impartial citizen Bristed, has been 'enabled to spread the web of her influence over *all* the elections, as well state, as federal, in the Union, so as to secure the appointment of proper personages, to be guided and directed by the master hand of its leading politicians; whence the congressmen, and a majority of the state legislatures, have long been induced to vote and pass laws in conformity with the political views of their Virginia lords.' Mr. Bristed certainly is here again innocent of the deadly sin of knowing exactly the amount of what he was saying in this clumsy ill constructed sentence. Even *he* certainly could not but perceive, that by thus boldly charging the people of the United States with being duped into a subserviency to Virginia policy, he insulted them with an imputation of inferiority in talents and capacity. If the politicians of Virginia have been thus able for years past to hold those of the other states in leading strings, it could only be by the old witchcraft of *Leonora Galigia*—the influence of strong minds over weaker ones, which is quite independent of geographical situation. If men must be influenced by any other impulse than that of their own minds, we confess we should rather see it done in this way than in any other. But every man who knows any thing of the United States, is aware of the folly of Mr. Bristed's assertions.

The struggles of party in this country have not been between the State of Virginia, and the eastern States, or the State of New York. They originated in conflicting interests pervading the whole community, and they were divided not by the people or the politicians of Virginia, or Massachusetts, or New York, nor by the intrigues or the personal influence of Mr. Jefferson, or any other man, but by the free sovereign unbiassed will of a majority of the people of the United States, in whose behalf we rebel with contemptuous indignation, this attempt of Mr. Bristed to persuade them and the world to the contrary. Our people are not governed by any sect of men—they know their own interests: and where the interests of a majority point, will the policy of the government always be directed, as in justice it ought, in spite of Mr. B's Virginia influence.

A clause of the constitution relating to the abolition of the slave trade furnishes our patriotic author with an opportunity of declaiming against the evils of slavery and slave-holding, evils so self-evident, as to require no such testimony to establish. Nobody denies the force of what has been urged by sensible men on the subject, and there is not a southern planter, who does not wish to derive the profits of his estate through any other medium than that of the system of slavery. All regret it, and all wish to be rid of the danger, and the reproach, if it can be done without depriving them of a great portion of the means of subsistence, which like other property they inherited from their ancestors. If Mr. Bristed could have devised any *practicable* scheme for bringing about so desirable an end, by inducing people to divest themselves of a property, which as appears by returns made to the late secretary Dallas, in 1814, amounted to upwards of \$65,000,000 in five states alone, and these not including either South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky or Tennessee, all slave-holding states—or if he can show how this can be done without letting loose upon the nation millions of beings without education, morals, or the habit of self-government, or of supplying their own wants—it will then be time enough to bring this subject before his readers, not as a matter of unjust reproach, but with a view to some practical public good. This much we will say, that an American citizen with an American heart, would, if he had adverted at all to this worn out topic, which has lately been revived to foster the purposes of British ambition, cloaked in the disguise of British humanity, not have pursued the *impartial* mode of Mr. Bristed. We will venture to affirm that he would have taken care to give his country due praise for having been *the first in the world* to pave the way for the gradual abolishing of domestic slavery. He would have freed her from the original sin of its first introduction, by showing that it was the act, and the policy of the British government, in defiance of the remonstrances of the representatives of those whose posterity now suffer the consequences, and are reproached with the crime.

Instead of this course so becoming an impartial inquirer as he professes himself to be, he is contented and happy in repeating the

old story of slave representation, which he denounces as it was denounced much more forcibly during the debates on the adoption of the constitution. He ought, however, to have been careful how he thus committed the object of his peculiar praise and most vehement admiration—the late general Hamilton. A late writer in the *New York Evening Post*, apparently one of the general's numerous injudicious friends, we perceive, has pronounced him the writer of a paper in the *Federalist*, containing the best argument extant in favour of this very slave representation. We will dismiss the subject with remarking that solitary instances of individual barbarity, ill authenticated, and by their loose generalities evading all refutation, ought not to be brought forward, to stain the character of a whole people. That the particular instances adduced by Mr. Bristed, are no general criterion for judging of the treatment of slaves, we have the authority of Mr. Birkbeck, for saying. This candid and accurate observer admits that after all deductions, he is puzzled to say whether the situation of the negro slaves in Virginia is not, on the whole, quite as eligible as that of the great mass of the poor people of England. This we presume is what Mr. Bristed terms 'Jacobin slang against England.' But we shall take leave to say that the authority of an eye witness, like Mr. Birkbeck, is quite as good as that of Mr. Bristed, who we will venture to say was never as far south as Baltimore.

There is in this chapter a deal of the modern cant of religion: we mean that piety which signalizes its fervour by confounding democrats and unbelievers together, and whose votaries indulge envy, malice, political antipathy, and unbounded uncharitableness, under the garb of the most meek, the most mild, and the most forgiving religion ever propounded to mankind. Mr. Bristed is one of the heroes of this new and most holy church militant. Let him be writing on whatever subject he may, only set France or Napoleon Bonaparte before him, and he begins to gnash his teeth, to chafe and foam, in the true spirit of the NEW ORDER OF POLITICAL CHRISTIANS, the members whereof signalize their mild forgiving doctrines, by an indiscriminate condemnation of nearly thirty millions of Frenchmen. For our part we are sick of *such* religion—sick and disgusted with this incestuous union between the religion which teaches us forgiveness, and the politics which never forgive. Why in a book treating of the resources and situation of the United State, does Mr. Bristed interrupt the course of his investigations, if we must dignify them with the name, by continually digressing for the purpose of exciting our admiration of England and our detestation of France? We cannot perceive that his subject involves any of these questions, which time, and the bayonets of the high disposers of the fate of Europe have rendered of no present moment; nor without the clue of our author's real intention, could we possibly conceive the drift of his idle declamations against the French revolution. That ill conducted scheme was the attempt of men panting for freedom, yet unfit to be free—of men benighted in the long darkness of centuries of oppression, and debased by

centuries of abject submission to a power without limits. The barbarity engendered, fostered and brought to maturity by a long continuance of tyranny, was put into action, not produced, by the revolution; it was the slave breaking his chains, and seeking vengeance for his long suffering. Liberty has not to answer for these crimes, but despotism; and those who so wilfully persist in attempting to make the French revolution a beacon and a warning to deter men from making efforts for freedom, are only displaying the inevitable influence which despotism exercises over the human character in all ages and countries. Whatever it was, it has passed away; the crimes of the revolutionists, goaded and inflamed as they were by foreign interference and foreign invasion, have been severely expiated; the blessings of legitimacy are restored at the points of English and Russian and Prussian and Cossac weapons, and we are firmly convinced that no true lover of human freedom will ever revive the recollection of an abortive, ill-conducted attempt, that ended, if we may judge by present appearances, in riveting yet stronger the chains of a polite, a gallant, and splendid nation, and in affording to the enemies of freedom an example with which to frighten the world into a tame submission to its masters.

The sixth chapter is an elaborate inquiry into the state of our literature, branching out into various remarks on the education of both sexes, and swollen with criticisms, or rather decisions, without any criticisms, on most of the popular writers of the United States. It is to be observed that when a writer undertakes to decide on the merits of literary productions, he is expected either to be a man so well known, and highly estimated, as to give weight to his mere naked *ipse dixit*, or that he will give some plausible reasons at least for his decisions. It may chance to happen otherwise, that his critical judgments will be treated with deserved contempt by the public, and perhaps with something more by writers who disdain to be even praised by such a self-created censor. This is however precisely the case with Mr. Bristed—we beg pardon, *citizen* John Bristed. He comes before the public totally destitute of any reputation as a writer, a critic, or any thing else that we have ever heard, and in a work which we have, we trust, already shown will not establish his fame, in the least, to sit in judgment on the literature and the literary men of the United States—to deal out oblivion or immortality—to acquit and to condemn—to tell us who is unworthy, and who is entitled to the admiration of his countrymen. Surely it would be presumption in us, nameless, unknown personages that we are, to dispute, or to question, or to appeal from the decisions of so competent a tribunal. Far be it from us to attempt any such indecorum;—we admire the modesty of Mr. Bristed too much not to attempt a feeble imitation of a great original.

Indeed, we have neither time, space, nor patience to detect the numerous *borrowings** of our author, in his attempts to account, sometimes for what does—oftener for what does not—exist, nor to expose his own *original* suggestions, as to the causes that impede

* See note at the end of this article.

the diffusion of a correct literary taste in this country, which our author affirms we are entirely without. One of these causes we shall exhibit as a specimen, quoting his own words:

‘The *novels*, chiefly English, with a few bad translations from French fictions, the sweepings of the Minerva press, in Leadenhall-street, are most abundantly used, as affording the highest gratification to the lovers of literature; *plays* and *farces* are in the next degree of requisition; *moral essays* and *history* suffer a little injury in the first, less in the second, and none in the subsequent volumes; the *classics*, elementary books on *metaphysics*, *political economy*, and *philosophical* subjects, generally sleep securely on their shelves, undusted and undisturbed by any profane hand or prying eye.’

We will merely ask Mr. Bristed if he considers the diffusion of a taste for novels, plays, &c. among the young and romantic, as a peculiar characteristic of our country—whether, in fact, such is not the taste of all countries, as being founded in the very nature of those feelings, which are alike common to the young in all ages and nations? We conclude this part of the examination by denying in toto, and without reservation, that our literary taste is in a single degree below that of England. The favourite authors of England are universally our favourite authors;—Shakspeare, Pope, Dryden, Goldsmith, and Addison, are as much read here as in England; and we are quite as strenuous admirers of Scott, Campbell, Moore, and Byron, as the Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviewers themselves. With these facts in view, we shall defer entering the field against the worthy, patriotic, impartial, modest, and prophetic citizen Bristed, until his second edition, when, probably, he may think it worth his while to substitute facts in the room of unsustained assertions.

In passing the popular writers of the United States in review before his high tribunal, he takes occasion to pay a just tribute to Mr. Washington Irving.* Mr. Irving wanted no such testimony. Though long absent from his native home, to the regrets of his friends, and though he has, we grieve to say, deprived his country of the present enjoyment of the maturer fruits of his playful imagination, his rich, vigorous, and well disciplined mind—his most sagacious and penetrating understanding—there was no occasion for Mr. Bristed to give a little importance to his judgment, by allying it to that of the whole people of the United States, already given amply in favour of that gentleman. We disclaim the aid of Mr. B. on this occasion, and actually feel somewhat indignant at his interference, where his opinion was not required, and where his judgment could be of no avail.

The complaints made by the citizen John Bristed concerning the defective state of education in this country, being for the most

* Mr. Bristed is mistaken in speaking of Salmagundi, as the work of Mr. Irving. We are authorized to state, that Mr. Paulding was joint editor with Mr. I. and contributed about an equal proportion of the work. The Hon. Mr. Irving, now member of congress from New York, also contributed some papers. Mr. B. as a resident in New York at the time, must, we should imagine, have known something of this.

part a repetition of observations heretofore made over and over again, by men of sense and experience, are entitled to considerable weight—a weight, however, but little increased by the momentum of our author's additional testimony. Without exactly setting about obviating these objections, we will content ourselves with observing, we are pretty well convinced that this system of education grew out of the state of our country—that it is the best adapted to its present situation, and that it will gradually alter to suit the exigencies of times and seasons, without the aid of Mr. Bristed. We confess we have great faith in the slow, salutary, and certain adaptation of the different parts of a great system to each other, which, if left to their natural operation, will always take place quietly without the aid of noisy, zealous, or premature reformers. Experience, the bright fixed star of human intellect, always clearly points out evils, when they cease to be balanced by a corresponding good; and, in our blessed country, experience, which operates on the people, guides and directs the destinies of the nation. In the present state of our country, the system of college education must necessarily be limited as to time and expense; because our students are for the most part the sons of men who cannot afford great expense in their education. A great majority of the young men educated at our colleges, are under the necessity of saving as much time as possible in the studies preparatory to entering on a profession which is essential to their maintenance. The complaint of Mr. Bristed that our young men attend college too young, leave it too soon, and enter upon their professions at too early an age, is, in fact, a natural consequence of the present state of this country. It, therefore, merely resolves itself into this simple question, whether in the present, or in any future state of our country, it is not better, on the whole, that education should be widely diffused, and somewhat incomplete, than confined to a few of the wealthy, and more perfect in its nature. We were a little startled to find the pious and orthodox citizen Bristed ascribing some of the evils of our college system to the great number of clerical professors; but we have since been informed our unfortunate critic was lately disappointed in his vehement aspirations towards a certain professorship in New York, by the successful rivalry of a worthy clergyman. The sentiment is, therefore, quite natural; and we hereby mortally sympathize with the disappointed, trifling, and discomfited citizen.

In the course of his remarks on the subject of learning and learned men, interspersed in this chapter, Mr. Bristed attributes a great deal of the deficiency he complains of, to what he is pleased to call the 'restless spirit of democracy.' Speaking of the want of a concentration of talent in any of our magazines and reviews, he goes on to say—

'Add to this, the universal vice of the United States, a perpetual craving after novelty. The charge which Demosthenes brought against his own countrymen, that they were continually running about, and asking,—is there any thing new?—is equally applicable to the Americans.

This eternal restlessness, and desire of change, pervades the whole structure of our society; the same man will start into life as a clergyman, then turn lawyer, next, convert himself into a farmer and land-jobber, and, taking a seat in congress, or some state legislature, by the way, end his days as a merchant and money-broker. The people are incessantly shifting their habitations, employments, views, and schemes; the residence of a servant does not average two months in each place; the abode of a whole household is generally changed once a year, and sometimes oftener; numerous families, that have been long settled in the elder states of New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, are continually migrating into Ohio, or the territories of Alabama, Illinois, and Mississippi; the executive, the legislators, the magistrates, and officers of all kinds, are changed biennially, or annually, or half-yearly, according to the greater, or less infusion of the restless spirit of democracy, into our various forms of government.'

On this passage we will take the trouble to correct the vaulting and flippant ignorance of the citizen John Bristed, by showing him that this propensity to change, is not the vice of democracy, but the natural consequence of a very natural state of things. It is simply the result of a *fluid* state of population; finding its level in the widely extended, and gradually extending limits of this great Republic. In other countries, men are born, vegetate, and rot on the same spot from generation to generation. Every station is occupied, every avenue is thronged with people claiming a prescriptive right, like a beggar to his peculiar walk; and if a man cannot find employment, and competency at home, the last thing he thinks of, is seeking it elsewhere—since he knows there is no room for him. But here, the star of Hope beckons in every direction—if any profession is overstocked with incumbents starving for want of employment—if by the influx of new comers, or the natural course of a rapidly increasing population, there occurs a difficulty in the attainment of the means of comfort and happiness—there is a land of promise in the west, where men are worth their weight in gold—where there is ample room for industry to labour with effect, and talent to attain its proper elevation. This most happy peculiarity of our country, is therefore not a *vice*, nor a perpetual craving after novelty, nor a consequence of the restless spirit of democracy, as the citizen Bristed is pleased to say. The disposition to emigrate, and to change professions, is a consequence of that singular versatility of genius, that fearless spirit of gallant enterprize, for which our people are distinguished above all others, finding its appropriate level, and sphere of action, in a new unsettled world.

The seventh and last chapter treats of the habits, manners and character of the people of the United States, and commences very appropriately by refering the reader to 'The Resources of the British Empire,' for 'the reason why British diplomacy is in general so defective!' It proceeds to state that 'Nations, large masses of men, being a body in continual flux,' 'liable to perpetual change in opinions, sentiments, relations and actions, *never can* be capable of gratitude to other nations—' 'That the will of man

is always swayed by his interests—' 'That an insurmountable barrier is raised between two nations speaking two different languages'—together with other frequent novelties, from all which he infers with M. Talleyrand, that it is more natural for this country to unite with England than with France. From this inquiry, which really appears to our limited comprehension to have little connexion with our habits, manners and character, he proceeds to state very candidly, that 'The great mass of *our people* is of English origin, and *not* made up originally of convicts and vagabonds, and mendicants; according to the vulgar, but erroneous opinion.' For this spirited vindication from so foul a charge, we humbly thank good citizen John Bristed. He then proceeds once more to demonstrate the evils of the slave system, and quotes with horrible satisfaction the following story, originally published without reference to time, place or names, in one of the most contemptible little miscellanies ever printed in this country, and to which no respectable author ever before resorted for materials to calumniate a whole people. We will give it in Mr. Bristed's own words, to show, with what triumphant malignity he has decked this fable of horror.

'Virginia prides itself on the comparative mildness with which its slaves are treated; and yet, in the first volume of the *American Museum* there is a heart-rending account of a slave being, for some offence, put into an iron cage, suspended to the branches of a lofty tree, and left to perish by famine and thirst, unless the birds of prey, to admit which the bars of the cage stood at intervals sufficiently wide, could terminate his life sooner, by plunging their beaks and talons into his vitals. In the mean time the eagle, the vulture, and the raven, feasted upon the quivering flesh of the living victim, whose body they mangled at their own leisure; and the high-spirited republicans of the ancient dominion were gratified by knowing, that the air was tainted by the putrefaction, and loaded with the expiring cries and groans of an agonized fellow-man, doomed to die by protracted torture.'

We protest against such authority for such a charge as this; and we must tell Mr. Bristed plainly and without circumlocution, that his custom of thus illustrating general assertions, by a single fact, of doubtful authority, is in the true spirit of Ashe, Parkinson, Jansen, and the most contemptible of our calumniators. By these loose generalities he evades a refutation, and prevents an abused people from convicting him of rank and wilful misrepresentation. In behalf of the nation we again challenge him to the proof, and he shall prove it, or stand confessed in his true character of a secret assassin stabbing the people under the guise of a fellow-citizen. Against our open enemies we are prepared, but the insidious hypocrisy of false friends ought, and shall be carefully guarded against.

Having properly prepared himself by a general and unfounded invective against the whole of the southern states, he enters upon the subject of religion, a favourite topic with Mr. Bristed, because it enables him to abuse the French, and to indulge in frothy declamations against unbelieving, atheistical democracy. We shall not

follow him, but content ourselves with pointing out some passages most worthy of contempt. The following will show how easy it is for a disciple of the new legitimate politico-religious system, to write libels under cover of religious zeal.

‘It is also asserted, by good authority, that in the southern and western States societies exist, built on the model of the Transalpine clubs in Italy, and the Atheistic assemblies of France and Germany, and, like them, incessantly labouring to root out every vestige of Christianity. So that, in the lapse of a few years, we are in danger of being overrun with unbaptised infidels, the most atrocious and remorseless banditti that infest and desolate human society.’

Here is another calumny, without any other proof than ‘it is asserted,’ to justify so serious an imputation. It is very rationally followed by a terrible attack on poor revolutionary France, Bayle, Helvetius, Raynel, D’Alembert, Condorcet, Diderot, all ‘brilliant banditti,’ all fathers or children of democracy. Did citizen John Bristed never hear of Tindall, Bolingbroke, Hume, Gibbon and other English unbelievers? Were they too the product of democracy and revolutionary France? But we will no further insult the majesty of heaven, by exposing the mad, preposterous and vindictive spirit with which this writer comes forward, to propagate piety, by indulging the overwhelming and boisterous effervescence of political antipathy. The accusations of such a man, of ‘coolness in religion,’ are unworthy of attention. We are thankful that we are not generally quite so *hot* in our piety as the sanctified railer before us, and we hope that it will be long ere the people of the United States, are sufficiently religious to become intolerant zealots, or uncharitable bigots.

On the subject of American character he displays again his real feelings, and the real intent of his book.

‘Sagacity and shrewdness are the peculiar characteristics of American intellect, and were in nothing more pre-eminent, than in the advice of President Washington’s secretary of the navy, that the United States should build their ships *nominally* of the same rate with those of Europe, but really of greater strength, of more speed, tonnage, and guns, than the corresponding classes of European vessels, that they might ensure victory over an enemy of equal, or nearly equal force, and escape, by superior sailing, any very unequal conflict. This was good policy; as it served materially to raise the naval character of the country, to lessen that of England, and to put out of use and service the European navies, and compel other nations to construct their ships anew, after the American model. This policy is still persisted in, and our seventy-fours are equal in tonnage, bulk, strength, guns, and crew, to any hundred gun ships in the British navy.’

Here under the guise of a compliment to the American character, he sums up, and admits in their fullest extent all the circumstances alleged by his countrymen in excuse for their continued defeats on the ocean during the late war. We should not care for these admissions, did not Mr. Bristed cloke himself in the garb of an American citizen, and in that character relinquish a great portion of what constitutes the pride of our country—its naval glory.

We cannot trust ourselves to speak of this conduct as it deserves, nor shall we here repeat the facts which have been repeatedly adduced, to prove that the alleged difference in American and British vessels of similar rate does not exist. Let them measure the Franklin lately in England, as they no doubt have done, and their silence is a full confession, that 'our seventy-fours, (*our* seventy-fours, says Mr. Bristed) so far from being equal to any hundred gun ship in the British Navy, are not larger than those of Great Britain. The proof of this, if any other is required than the dead silence of the British papers on the subject of the Franklin's dimensions, shall be given by actual comparison, if Mr. Bristed thinks proper again to repeat, the assertions of his fellow-labourer William, *alias* Robert James. We have noticed this passage more particularly because of its insidious character, and because it will no doubt be triumphantly quoted as the acknowledgment of an American citizen. We disclaim such citizens. But we cannot spare room for any farther notice of the contents of this chapter, nor of those of the 'conclusion,' in which the author branches out into European politics on a great scale.—We must now conclude this long article, with a few general remarks.

The first is, that Mr. Bristed appears to know little or nothing of the present state of this country, having derived all his knowledge, from books published, many of them, years ago. His own individual experience seems altogether confined to the city of New-York, and the statements of the number of paupers and drunkards are entirely applicable to our commercial cities, the great haunts of the poorer classes of Englishmen, and the resort of all the beggars of the country, who are invited thither by the innumerable charitable societies. In stating these things it was his duty as an impartial writer to have distinctly premised that he was not giving a picture of the general state and character of the United States. He has not done so, and the omission must be charged to the account of ignorance, or a desire to exhibit an overcharged picture of the misery, and profligacy of the whole nation, by making as usual, one solitary instance a criterion for the whole.

Our second remark is, that whenever he is going to pay a compliment to our national character, he always contrives to give the principal honour to England, by premising we are the children of Englishmen—'the blood of England flows in our veins'—'it quickens every artery of our giant frame'—'we are another Britain,' &c. One would argue from these mere naked passages, that the citizen Bristed began to think we were quite a creditable offspring of Great Britain. This is by no means his intention. He only means to credit his own country with all that is praiseworthy in ours.

Our third remark is that the writer exhibits a most bitter hostility against those emigrants to the United States who like himself became citizens, but who like him did not abjure with their lips what they cherished in their hearts. Among these he has de-

nounced even the dead, and broken open the sacred asy-lum of the grave to gratify his savage and unrelenting animosity. In one place he digresses for the purpose of scattering the ashes of the philosophic *Priestley*, a man whose name is identified with science, and whose memory can not be injured by the spiteful effusions of Mr. Bristed. If here his efforts were not marked with the splendid radiance which shone more bright from the gloom of aristocratic insolence which surrounded him in his own country—*here*, at least, he experienced that respectful consideration, denied him elsewhere;*—here he was estimated by his science and his virtues, not by political tracts—here he rested safe from that unmerited persecution which drove him an unwilling exile from his native land—which† outraged genius, philosophy, and humanity—which trampled on all that is held sacred in society, and by its approbation stamped itself with the eternal opprobrium of sanctioning the devastations of human art. He is gone from this world of party brutings, and inveterate broils to meet his reward, or receive his punishment. Ere this he has been judged by a higher tribunal, and purer judge. Let his name rest in peace. We would say more on this subject, did we not know that among his many valuable friends, Dr. Priestley left behind him one who still survives, the depository and the guardian of his fame, better capable to vindicate his deceased friend, and fellow exile. We allude to judge Cooper.

Our fourth remark is, that throughout the whole of the work before us, the author, while affecting to be engaged in giving a faithful picture of this country, especially designed to correct the erroneous impressions of ‘Foreign potentates,’ as he has it—he admits from time to time as our apologist, what had been already fully refuted, when charged against us by writers professedly hostile. He does all this in the character of a friend and fellow citizen, speaks of ‘*our country*,’ whenever he is about stabbing her to the heart, and fixes a stigma on her fame, while affecting to be zealously employed in her vindication. It is for this reason we have employed so much time in reviewing a work intrinsically of little consequence, except in this point of view, and possessing but little merit as a literary production. It was from a desire to undeceive our fellow citizens with regard to the real character of a book pretending to strike the balance between our injudicious friends, and our unprincipled calumniators, and thus obviate the effects that might possibly result from a belief that the decision was made by

* It is untrue that Priestley died unhonoured in this country. The American Philosophical Society reserved for him the high honour previously confined to Rittenhouse and Franklin, of causing a public eulogium to be pronounced on his character by a member of their body. See page 354 of this volume.

† In England Dr. Priestley’s house and valuable library, consisting of a rare collection of philosophical treatises, together with several manuscripts of great consequence, and philosophical instruments, were burned by a populace amused at the conflagration.

an impartial citizen of the United States. We repeat Mr. Bristed is an Englishman—that he was and still continues devotedly attached to his native country, and that he never speaks or thinks or feels, like a native American. For this we do not blame him, but we do blame him and that severely for thus playing the character of a citizen of the United States, and calling this ‘*our country*’ apparently for the sole purpose of making his hostility to us as mischievous as possible, by attempting to give to the voluntary testimony of a foreigner and an enemy, all the weight derived from the slow, unwilling admissions of a friend and associate. We recommend to him at parting, if he will persist to appear in the character of our fellow-citizen, to endeavour for his own sake to play it a little more naturally, and curb if possible his ungovernable propensity to abuse democracy, the fundamental principle of this, and all other free governments.

Our fifth remark is, that we might, if we had chosen to take the trouble, have quoted more than one passage which conveyed a pretty compliment enough to the people of the United States in a general way. But as the uniform method of our author is to give us his general good word, and then prove that we do not deserve it, by particular details, we intentionally omitted troubling the reader with our acknowledgments for Mr. Bristed’s condescension. Thus, for instance, after charging us with ‘national vanity,’ ‘national drunkenness,’ ‘national extravagance,’ with ‘eating tobacco,’ ‘burning slaves,’ ‘murdering prosody,’ and other constituent qualities, habits, and characteristics of greatness, he concludes his seventh and last chapter with gravely and pompously observing—‘The result of all this is, that the American people possess physical, intellectual, and moral materials of national greatness superior to those of any other country.’ Our author is a great dealer in the *non sequitur*.

Our sixth and last remark is, that Mr. John Bristed, who, in his political theories, lays it down as a maxim, as in the case of the seat of government, alluded to before, that political wisdom is altogether dependent on geographical situation, also applies this rule to morality, religion, habits, and manners. His position is, that New England is distinguished above all the other portions of the union, in all these requisites, and that a gradual deterioration is observed in proceeding towards the south. The theory is almost as amusing as that of Mr. Gilbert, as quoted by our author. Mr. Gilbert perceives a striking analogy between the human character and the productions of the soil—between the strength of the English character, and the oak, peppermint, sloes, crabs, and sour cherries of the English soil! Thus Mr. John Bristed, who gravely reasons that as we recede from the salutary influence of Passamaquoddy, the most northern extremity of our country, there will be found a corresponding relaxation in morals, religion, &c. This Mr. Bristed, although he does not say it, probably ascribes to a gradual approximation to the neighbourhood of those states which produce live oak, naval stores, Virginia politicians, and other mis-

chievous things, to the great annoyance and discomfiture of his native England. That this is his private theory we have little doubt, because the proofs adduced by him to establish it, are altogether insufficient, as they appear at present in his book.

He instances in support of this geographical system of morality, the prevalence of gaming, duelling, &c. in the southern states, borrowing his notions from Mr. Morse, and other writers, who, like Mr. Bristed, have followed him, without taking the trouble to inquire into the alterations of manners that have taken place since the publication of Mr. Morse's uncandid, and, in some parts, unfaithful delineations. Had Mr. Bristed taken the trouble to inquire, a thing, indeed, he seldom appears to have thought of, he would have known that the severity of the laws against duelling and gaming, have almost altogether put an end to these practices in the southern states. In Virginia, for instance, a law has been in force for some years past, making it necessary for every candidate for any public situation in the state government, to make oath that he has never directly or indirectly been concerned in a duel. This, in a state where every man looks forward to some kind of political honours, has been found so effectual, that since the passage of this law, there is no instance of a duel occurring, in Virginia, between Virginians.

The laws against gaming are, if possible, yet more rigid and severe. Any civil officer is empowered to enter a room where men are at play, and seize all the money found on the table, as forfeiture to the informer and the state. Nay, professed and notorious gamblers, are liable to be *sold* at public auction; and an instance occurred within a few years, in Virginia, of a person thus publicly disposed of at one of the county courts. The consequence of these severe laws, has been an almost total suspension of gaming and duelling in the southern Atlantic states, with the exception of Georgia, for some years. A number of instances have occurred of duels in Georgia, whose proximity to Florida gives opportunity of evading the established penalties.

It is not from any particular local attachments to the south, that we have offered these observations; but with a view of vindicating from undeserved, because unfounded aspersion, a gallant, high-minded, honourable, and patriotic portion of our countrymen, long the object of dislike and the theme of misrepresentation to British hirelings, and *British Americans*. We disclaim all ideas of any local distinctions in the United States;—we know of no geographical lines and limits for piety or morality; and, if we have been found in the lists defending any particular section of our country, it was because this section was particularly assailed, and because no part of the United States can be calumniated, without staining the character of the nation. We are determined never to stand silently by, and see the reputation of any part of this nation exalted or depressed, on the score of its attachment or its hostility to England, without exposing the motives, and repelling the imputations of the *impartial* writer, as we have done those of Mr. Bristed. It is time, we should think, for these distinctions to be forgotten.

For ourselves, we are at all times glad to see New England praised; but we do not like to see it done at other people's expense. We respect Massachusetts for her firmness in resisting British wrongs, at one time, and are willing to forget her want of firmness in resisting them on another. We respect Virginia as the elder sister of a glorious race—as the birth-place of the GREAT FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY, and of many other great and virtuous patriots; and, above all, as the uniform supporter of the true republican doctrines of our revolution. But, at the same time, we must beg the writers of Virginia as well as Massachusetts to be pleased to recollect, that there are other members of this goodly confederation; and that their particular rivalry is a matter of no very particular consequence to any body but themselves. Perhaps it may be as well to give this hint to New York, which, of late, has exhibited several alarming symptoms of awakened consciousness of her prodigious dignity and consequence in the union.

(Note referred to in page 513.)

This *borrowing* is an old trick of our author it would seem, for the *Literary Panorama*, a respectable London Journal, laid claim to the better half of Mr. Bristed's former publication on the resources of *Britain*.

‘In morals, nothing is more commendable than self-review; and Pythagoras was perfectly right, when he inserted in his “Golden Verses,” the precept which commanded a recollection of every day, ere the slumbers of night were suffered to weigh down the eye-lids:—but, that reviewers, who spend their days in scrutinizing others, *pro bono publico*, should be called on to review themselves, to praise or to censure themselves,—is placing them in a situation somewhat ludicrous, and more than equally difficult and delicate. Such, nevertheless, is our situation with respect to the volume before us. It is a reprint of a work published in America by a gentleman of eminence in the literary world, who thought it his duty to enlighten his countrymen on subjects of the first importance to their political welfare. In performing this duty he has honoured the *Literary Panorama* with such continued attention, that almost half his performance is either a transcript, or an analysis of sentiments which on various occasions our work has supported or vindicated. The effect of this representation, depending, no doubt, greatly on the high respectability of Mr. Bristed's character, was to bring even the partizans of France, themselves, to a pause, and to abate the velocity of certain movements then in activity in the American government. In this instance, we trust we ‘have done the state some service;’ it is a high honour to our humble labours.

‘In the year 1809, Mr. B. published ‘Hints on the National Bankruptcy of Britain, and on her Resources to maintain the Present Contest with France.’ A new edition of that work being demanded, the author has cast it into the present form, and has enlarged it by such considerable accessions of authorities and arguments, as entitle it to be considered as a new work. He has brought it down to the latest accounts of European affairs which had reached America; and we have the satisfaction of saying that nothing has occurred since, to weaken his inferences or expectations.

‘The object in Mr. B.'s mind was, to prove by the united testimony of the most competent evidence, that Britain is likely to support and to terminate the present contest with the tyrant of Europe, in an honourable, a safe, and an *uninjured* condition. For this purpose he quotes almost every writer who has examined the state of France, and the continent, or of Britain and her connexions. His conclusions are expressed in terms more energetic, perhaps, than our readers have been accustomed to from us; but altogether to the same purport. To enter more minutely into the contents of this volume would be irksome: the tables on which Mr. B. founds his inductions—the official reports on which he depends for facts—the informations, public or private, to which he appeals for the confirmed prosperity and power of Britain, have almost all appeared in our pages.’

Lit. Pan. vol. 11. 1812

ART IV.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, and Politics.*

USEFUL ARTS.

On salting meat, as practised in South America.—It is generally observed, that the lymph contained in glands, under the ligaments of joints, or between the muscles, and their cellular membranes is what most indisposes flesh-meat from taking salt well, and consequently keeping long.

An obvious practice has obtained, only perhaps among a few, of steeping meat for some hours in cold water, and afterwards wiping it dry, and pressing it well with a dry cloth, previous to salting, for private family use. This with tongues, or flank pieces, seems almost indispensable in warm weather, in all countries, and is found to answer in all cases.

The practice in salting, particularly slices of pork, as also ships' beef for the navy, is to discharge as much as possible the lymph from either, by salting once moderately, and when the salt has dissolved in a small degree, to pile the meat sometimes with weight upon it, at others acting by its own weight, by which the same end is in a degree answered.

Meat killed off from grass feed, or green meat of any kind, never takes salt so well as that which has been kept on dry, and less succulent food. The cause arises from a superabundance of lymph, difficult to be discharged, contained in the whole texture of the animal fed upon grass. This however does not go to invalidate the propriety of preferring fat meat, if fed some time previously upon Indian corn, hay, oats, beans, or other dry food, such as is calculated to impart a firm consistency to the flesh of the animal.

But, as the wild cattle of South America cannot be controlled in their pasturage, it is well to understand that grass-fed cattle may be rendered the more capable, (if not nearly equal to cattle fed on dry food) of taking salt, by salting moderately at first,—and after pressing by enormous weight, so as to expel the lymph, re-salting in the usual manner. But, in that case, it is expedient previously to lay the meat in cold water, for some little time, to alienate the lymph, and then wipe it dry &c.

The use of sugar, where it is as cheap as salt, may be well recommended for

trial, to the quantity of one half sugar, and one half salt, or say, one third sugar.

Dr. Stephen Hales, and the Hon. Robert Boyle, in their repeated experiments on the various modes of preserving meat for long keeping, found that sugar alone preserved it from putrefaction, quite as well as salt; but left rather a rapid taste, which rendered it not so pleasing to the palate, though not less nutritive, perhaps more so, than in the usual manner of salting.

A small proportion of salt-petre will greatly tend to prevent putrefaction, or any approach to it, in meat, without rendering it hard.

The following proportions of sugar, salt, and salt-petre, constitute the famed Hambro-pickle, which has been found to preserve meat most effectually in hot as well as cold climates.

Six pounds of salt:

Eight ounces of brown sugar,

Six ounces of salt-petre.

Dissolve these by boiling them in four gallons of water. In this pickle when perfectly cold, keep any sort of flesh meat sunk, and stopped close.

Fluid is particularly excellent for pork meat, and both keep beef from becoming over salt, or hard and dry when dressed.

In the Crimea, and throughout the southern provinces of Russia, beef is potted, cured and preserved in a similar manner.

South American beef could, yet more conveniently, be melted into portable soup, and thus exported. Portable soup is commonly sold at several shops in London, for distant voyages, and is found to keep good for years, in any climate. The recipe might be procured, and would be found extremely useful both in our navy, and in our mercantile marine.

A Spanish gentleman, Don Venetuela, has lately discovered that fresh meat may be preserved fresh for several years by keeping it immersed in molasses.

— DRAMA.

‡ [It has become a practice of late years to mould the principal incidents of the more popular novels of the day to the purposes of the drama, and, by actual representation, to endeavour to give to

those incidents an impressive effect, with a view to transfer to it a portion of the public favour, already powerfully prepossessed by the original works; of this the play of Guy Mannerling furnishes the most successful example. We have thought that Rob Roy might be converted into a dramatic performance with considerable effect. A parallel might not inaptly be run between a chieftain with his clan, and the captain and banditti in the *Forty Thieves*, while Rob Roy's cave, so celebrated in history, might compare with the like retreat in that opera, which, at the commanding sound of "*open Sesame*," knew to obey the countersign.

A piece entitled *Rob Roy* has been introduced upon the London boards, founded upon the narrative already so well received by the public, but it does not yet appear with what success. Much judgment, spirit, and versatility of genius is necessary to adapt such a tale, so various and refined in its transitions, so abounding in description of the secret workings of the human mind, which no outward representation can reach, to the laws of the stage; and precipitation arising from the urgency of the occasion, with the probability of competition, is by no means favourable to the success desired. The following is the prologue to the play.]

PROLOGUE

TO THE NEW DRAMA OF

ROB ROY THE GREGARACH.

Spoken by Mrs. Knight.

When the sun marches in his mid-day height,
And Earth, Air, Water, Heaven, all are bright,
And the white clouds that wreath their forms on high,
Float o'er his light, like the thin drape-ry
That modest beauty flings o'er Beauty's face,
Not to conceal, but lend a charm to grace,
All is thus warm and glorious to the view,
For 'tis the Sun that gives the golden hue;
But change the hour, and let the moon's pale beam,
O'er the same spot of Earth in silence gleam,
The fields look dark, the drooping flow-ers weep,

And Ocean's sapphire waves in darkness sleep—
The scene is still the same, but chang'd the hour,
And ah! too soon is chang'd the guiding power:—
'Tis thus the mighty one, the still unknown,
With genius on MACGREGOR's story shone,
That in the telling made their deeds his own.
MACGREGOR's still the Hero of our tale,
The scene's the same, but half its glories fail.
A different light must lend a different hue,
And scatter different shadows to the view.
DIANA VERNON, once of nought afraid,
Is now a timid, self-retiring maid;
HELEN, more great in virtue and in crimes,
Stands like a granite in the shock of times;
And more is broken from the Novel's scene,
Like ruins, telling of the things *have* been.
Be gentle, friends, nor with too rude a blow
Crush a young plant, that, suffered still to grow,
May live in one and not far distant hour,
To offer to your hand a sweeter flower.
Oh! might my voice—but 'twere unfit, reveal
The pangs your Poet now is doom'd to feel:
His doubts, his hopes, his agony of fear,
Long sleepless nights—and sometimes too the tear
That manhood wears, and yet disdains to wear.
If, but Oh, no!—for you have ever been
The generous patrons of his mimic scene.
Forgive his doubts, and, if he be to blame,
His wish to please you well may share the shame.
'Tis true his toil has woven but a wreath
Of flow'rets springing wildly on the heath,
Yet gratitude's fair blossomings now bind

The humble gift for your acceptance
twin'd;
And should your kindness deign to wear
one flower
Of all his care has cull'd in weary
hour,
With grateful heart, ere dies the cir-
cling year,
He hopes to bring his votive offering
here.

—
ANECDOTES.

Etymological Anecdote.—A dispute once arose in the way of raillery, between the earl of Temple and the first lord Lyttleton, on the comparative antiquity of their families. Lord Lyttleton contended that the name of *Grenville* was originally Greenfield; lord Temple insisted that it was derived from *Grande Ville*. "Well then," said lord Lyttleton, "if you will have it so, my family may boast of the higher antiquity; for *Little towns* were certainly antecedent to *Great cities*; but of you will be content with the more humble derivation, I will give up the point, for *green fields* were certainly more ancient than either."

—
Admiral Roddam.—The good admiral attributed his capture to the ship missing stays at one time, under the management of lieutenant James Wallace, while he was taking some refreshment. This was some hours before the Greenwich was taken; but the missing stays got the ship entangled with those of the enemy, in some way or other, so that the misfortune was never recovered. The admiral used to relate with much good humour, that when he gave the printer at Kingston directions to publish the minutes of the court martial, he ordered a copy to be first given to each member of the court martial, to his brother officers, to some other friends, and to sell the remainder. It was some time afterwards that he again saw his publisher, when, in order to settle accounts, the book was referred to, and the man stated, that, according to order, so many copies had been disposed of. "Why that is the number I ordered you to give away in my name, how many have you sold?"—"Not one," was the reply, "though I advertised in all the papers."—"That is strange!" said captain Roddam, "for admiral Byng's trial went through two or three editions in a week." That is a different case," said the printer; "if you had been condemned to be shot.

your trial would have sold as well; but the public take no interest in an honourable acquittal."

—
ETYMOLOGICAL.

Poets and Painters.—It is dangerous to disoblige either a great Poet, or Painter. Virgil in his second book of the Georgics, had bestowed very high eulogiums on the fertile territory of Nole Campania; but the inhabitants of this city not choosing to allow their waters to run through his lands, he erased Nole, and put Ora in its place. Dante also placed his master Brunetto, who had offended him, in his "Inferno"—such is the vengeance of poets! Michel Angelo constituted the pope's master of the ceremonies, Biggio, an imperative personage in Hell, in his picture of "the last judgment!"—Such is the vengeance of painters.

—
Philip, Duke of Burgundy.—This prince was often accustomed to disguise himself, and to visit the different public-houses, that he might hear what the people were saying: one day he met, in a resort of this kind, with a man who spoke very ill of him, and who, knowing the duke the moment he cast his eyes on him, fell at his feet and implored his pardon. The duke granted it immediately: but gave him this warning, "Never again to speak of the conduct of princes; for if thou speakest well of them," said he, "thy words are false; and if ill, thou art liable to suffer every misfortune that power can inflict."

—
Paul, the Asiatic Hunter.—Paul was, for many years, employed as superintendent of the elephants stationed at Daupore, generally from fifty to an hundred in number. This remarkable man was about six feet two inches in height, his make was more than proportionably stout, and his disposition was completely indicative of the country* which gave him birth. Nothing could ever rouse him to a state of merriment, even amidst the uproar of midnight festivity, of which he partook freely; but without being affected in the least by the copious libations, even of spirits, while others confined themselves to wine. Paul would sit nearly silent, with an unvarying countenance, twirling his thumbs, and occasionally volunteering with a German song, delivered with closed eyes, the thumbs still twirl-

* He was a German

ing, and with obvious tokens of delight at the sound of his own voice; which, though not offensive, was by no means equal to his own opinion of its merits. Paul never took offence; he was bent on making money, and his exertions were in the end amply successful. He was possessed of a coolness and presence of mind, which gave him a wonderful superiority in all matters relating to tiger-hunting. He rarely rode but on a bare pad, and ordinarily by himself, armed with an old musket, and furnished with a small pouch containing his powder and ball. He was, however, remarkably nice in the selection of elephants for this purpose; and as he was for many years in charge of such numbers, in which changes were perpetually made, from requisitions for service, and from new arrivals, we may justly conclude, that he did not fail to keep himself well provided, by the reservation of such as were, in his opinion, best qualified for his views.

The consciousness of his own corporeal powers, as well as the steadiness of the animal that bore him, and the continual practice in which he lived, could not fail to render Paul successful, even had his disposition been somewhat less phlegmatic, and his mind less steady. Accordingly all were governed by him, when after game; for which he would search to a great distance, and would perhaps set off thirty or forty miles with as many elephants, on hearing of a tiger having committed depredations. As to hog-hunting, Paul thought it beneath his notice; and, as he used to express himself, 'left that to the boys.' Indeed, it was very rare to see him on a horse. His weight and disinclination, no doubt, were partly the causes of his rarely taking to the saddle; but, as he was a great dealer in elephants, we may fairly conjecture, that the display of such as were ready for the market, was the motive which operated principally towards his riding elephants on all occasions.

Paul's aims were at the head or the heart, and in general his shots were well placed; rarely deviating many inches from the parts at which he levelled his musket. He charged very amply, and never missed of effect for want of powder.

He used often to remark, that he could instantly, at the sight of a tiger,

decide whether or not it had been in the habit of attacking the human race, or whether its devastations had been confined to cattle, &c. He observed that such as had once killed a man, ever after cared but little for any other prey; and that they could be distinguished by the remarkable darkness of their skins, and by a redness in the cornea, or whites of the eyes.

Paul was assuredly a competent judge, but this assertion partook more of hypothesis than reason.—*Oriental Field Sports.*

— AGRICULTURE.

The following easy, simple, and infallible Method of forcing every Fruit-tree to blossom and to bear Fruit, has been translated from the German of the Rev. GEO. CHARLES LEWIS HEMPEL, (Secretary to the Pomological Society of Altenburgh in Saxony), by George Henry Noehden, LL. D. F. L. S. &c. —'In my early years I saw my father, who was fond of Pomology, and skilled in that science, cutting a ring on several branches of trees, which already were in blossom, for the purpose of producing, by that means larger fruit than usual. This was not his own invention, but as far I recollect, derived from a French journal. 30 years ago, when I was a boy, I practised this operation, in imitation of him and thereby obtained larger pears, and plums. In repeating this operation of ringing the branches, which I did merely for the purpose of getting larger fruit, I observed that the branches so operated upon always bore the next year. By this reiterated appearance I was lead to the idea, that perhaps this mode of ringing the bark might be a means of compelling every unproductive branch to yield fruit. With this view I cut rings upon a considerable number of branches, which as yet showed no blossoms; and found, by repeating the experiment, the truth of my supposition indisputably confirmed by experience. The application of this experiment, whereby upon every bough or branch fruit may artificially be produced, is very simple and easy. With a sharp knife make a cut in the bark of the branch, which you mean to force to bear, and not far from the place where it is connected with the stem, or, if it be a small branch or shoot, near

to where it is joined to the larger bough: the cut is to go round the branch, or to encircle it and to penetrate to the wood. A quarter of an inch from this cut, you make a secone cut like the first, round the branch, so that, by both encircling the branch, you have marked a ring upon the branch, a quarter of an inch broad, between the two cuts. The bark between these two cuts you take clean away with a knife, down to the wood removing even the fine inner bark, which immediately lies upon the wood, so that no connexion whatever remains between the two parts of the bark, but the bare and naked wood appears white and smooth. But this bark-ring, which is to compel the tree to bear, must be made at the right time, that is, when in all nature the buds are strongly swelling or are breaking out into blossom. In the same year a callus is formed at the edges of the ring, on both sides, and the connexion of the bark, that had been interrupted, is restored again without any detriment to the tree or the branch operated upon, in which the artificial wound soon again grows over. By this simple though artificial means of forcing every fruit-tree, with certainty, to bear, you obtain the following important advantages: 1. You may compel every young tree of which you do not know the sort to show its fruit, and decide sooner whether, being of a good quality, it may remain in its first state, or requires to be grafted. 2. You may thereby, with certainty, get fruit of every good sort of which you wish to see the produce in the next year. 3. This method may probably serve to increase considerably the quantity of fruit in the country.—The branches so operated upon are hung full of fruit, while the others, that are not ringed, often have nothing, or very little, on them. This effect is easy to be explained from the theory of the motion of the sap. For, when the sap moves slowly in a tree, it produces fruit-buds, which is the case in old trees; when it moves vigorously, the tree forms wood, or runs into shoots, as happens with young trees. Though I arrived at this discovery myself in consequence of trying the same process with a different view, namely, to increase only the size of the fruit, but not to force barren branches, that were only furnished with leaf-buds, to bear,

this latter application being before quite unknown to me; I will, on that account, by no means give myself out for the first inventor of this operation: but I was ignorant of the effects to be produced by this method, and only discovered them by repeated experiments of my own, which I made for the promotion of Pomology. Frequent experience of the completest success has confirmed the truth of my observations. Nor do I think that this method is generally known; at least, to all those to whom I showed the experiment, the effect produced appeared new and surprising.”

EFFECT OF HOT WATER ON FLOWERS.

By the following process, the lover of flowers will be able to prolong, for a day, the enjoyment of their short-lived beauty. Most flowers begin to droop and fade after being kept during 24 hours in water; a few may be revived by substituting fresh water but all (the most fugacious, such as the poppy, and perhaps one or two others, excepted) may be completely restored by the use of hot water. For this purpose, place the flowers in scalding water, deep enough to cover about one third of the length of the stem; by the time the water has become cold, the flowers will have become erect and fresh, then cut off the coddled end of the stems, and put them into cold water.

MECHANICS.

Mr. Ackermann has taken out a Patent for a most useful and ingenious invention, viz. a Moveable Axle applicable to all Four-wheeled Carriages. Its advantages over the stiff axle are numerous:—A carriage with the Moveable Axle will turn in a much more limited space:—It permits a carriage to be built shorter, and of course diminishes the draught.—It affords complete security against upsetting, and is, in like manner, a safeguard against accidents in turning, the wheels never changing their position, but only their direction.—With the Moveable Axle the fore-wheels can be made much higher, while the body may be hung lower. A high fore-wheel adds much to the beauty of a carriage, while it also greatly reduces the draught and surmounts obstructions with much greater facility.—It is by no means so liable to break as the stiff axle; and the breaking of the perch-bolt is rendered next to impossible.—A carriage with the Patent Moveable

Axle requires but six pieces of timber, including the pole, instead of twenty. This gives the carriage an airy appearance, and reduces the rattling noise.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

A new periodical paper, devoted to literary and political discussions, has been spoken of for some time past; and what is very extraordinary to those who know the profound indifference with which publications of this kind are regarded, the one above mentioned was a general subject of conversation even before it made its appearance. The names of the conductors were mentioned. Among them are several members of the French Academy, and various young writers who nobly follow their footsteps in literature and public affairs.

The first number has just appeared under the title of the *Political and Literary Spectator*. At the head we observe the names of MM. Auger, Lacratelle and Campanon of the French Academy; Deprez, Droz, Loyson, Pariset, Lourdoueix, &c. The *Spectator* will not be periodical in the strict sense of the word, but in course of the year fifty two numbers will be published at intervals nearly equal. It is evident that the public have nothing to lose by this arrangement, and that the proprietors have every thing to gain.

The first article, which serves as an introduction to the *Spectator*, is happily selected. It is a sort of dedication to France, an homage to the country, which has the more claims to the respect and love of her children because she is unfortunate. M. Lacratelle has undertaken to repel the outrages of Lord Stanhope; in the mouth of an Englishman, a member of the English House of Peers, he places the apology of a nation, which daily proves that she can endure any thing except contempt. This first article is entitled, A Speech which might have been delivered in the British House of Peers, in reply to Lord Stanhope's Speech.

M. Lacratelle says, that the sentiments of a Frenchman are frequently observable in this Speech, but he adds, he does not fear being reproached with having yielded too much to this feeling. We can assure him that wherever this Speech might be delivered, it would enjoy over that of his opponent the advantages which reason and true elevation of sentiment maintain in every

country over the malignant ideas and unjust prejudices of a mind blinded by passion.

The literary portion of the *Spectator* is not less ably written than the political articles. It comprises a review on the *Memoirs and Correspondence of Madame d' Epinay*, by M. Auger, which is without contradiction one of the best that ever issued from the pen of that justly celebrated critic.—*French paper.*

RUSSIAN LITERATURE.

Mr. Stanislave Siestrencewitz de Bohlews, Metropolitan Archbishop of Bohilew, has published a work in French, under the title of *Recherches Historiques sur l'origine des Sarmates, des Esclavons, et des Slaves*, under the periods of the conversion of these people to Christianity. It is in 4 vols. 8vo. and has three maps and a portrait of the author. Though written in French, and published at St. Petersburg about four years ago it is hardly known, we believe, to the rest of Europe, which induces us to give some account of it. The author fixes in the year 2143 before the vulgar era, the emigration of two Scythian Bactrian Princes, and their arrival in Cappadocia: in 1514 the passage of the Scythians into Europe, and their settlement near the Borysthenes. In 1475 (still before Christ) the Scythians are attacked in Tauris by Sesostris, and repulse him. Twenty years after, a colony of Medes (*Enetes or Slaves*) settle on the shores of the Black Sea. The Enetes arrive in Thrace in 1209; in Italy, in 1183. In 380 the Sarmatians pass into Europe, and Scythia takes the name of Sarmatia. From the commencement of the Christian era, the facts and the details become too numerous to be pointed out here. The author introduces them in his first three volumes without either proving or discussing them. The quotations contained in the fourth volume, do not consist of transcriptions or illustrations of texts, but merely in references to the author's books and chapters, where we are to find the authorities in support of the narratives or results in the three treatises, on the *Sarmatians*, the *Esclavons*, and the *Slaves*. The *Esclavons* must not be confounded with the *Slaves*. They were neither pure *Slaves* nor pure Sarmatians: their nation, formed by the Yazyk Sarmatians, included many Illyrians, who were *Slaves* by origin. The Greeks

translated the name of *Slaves* (praiseworthy) by that of *Enetes* (celebrated,) &c. The method followed in this work is not perhaps very strict, but it displays much research, and contains curious data.

— *Lit. Gaz.*

LUTHER'S MARRIAGE.

There has just appeared in Germany a work entitled, *A Description of all the Curiosities relative to Martin Luther*: the author is M. Berger, Director of the Hospital of Eisleben. He appears highly indignant at an assertion made by a Catholic of distinction, who contends that Luther was in reality never married. M. Berger has taken infinite pains to collect authentic documents, in which the following facts are incontestably proved. The author regards them as highly important to posterity:—

‘On the 13th of June 1523, whilst Dr. Pommer, the painter Crarach, and the advocate Apell, were discoursing with Martin Luther, the latter requested that they would accompany him to call on the notary Reichenbach. Catharine Bora, a reformed nun, lodged in Reichenbach's house, leading a life of modesty and piety. Luther asked her whether she was willing to become his wife? At first she did not know whether he was joking or in earnest, and she returned no answer. Luther however declared that he was serious, and Catharine at length gave him her hand. The marriage ceremony was performed on the 27th of June. In order that it might be joyfully celebrated, the magistrates delivered to the guests four bottles of Malmsey wine, an equal portion of Rhenish wine, and six quarts of Franconian wine. The council of the city moreover presented Martin Luther with a tun of Eimbrick beer.

‘Finally, as an additional proof of their admiration for the Reformer, the magistracy pledged themselves, in the name of the citizens, to pay for all the wine he might consume for the space of a year. The whole of these donations amounted to the sum of three thalers, four groschens, and two pfennings.’—This is certainly not the way in which Plutarch wrote the lives of his illustrious men.

Lit. Gaz.

LITHOGRAPHY.

The art of Lithography continues to make most rapid progress in France,

from the rival exertions of Count LASTEYRIE and M. ENGLEMAN; their spirited emulation has done for it what a monopoly would not have accomplished in a century. Under Count Lasteyrie's care, it rivals copper in almost every line of engraving; and possesses, besides, advantages peculiar to itself. A series of Lithographic prints, by Count Lasteyrie, is now publishing at Paris; the second number of which, containing six plates, has just appeared; the sixth plate is written music, or, as the Lithographers denote it, autographed music. The method by which this plate is executed displays one of the most important advantages of Lithography: a person writes a letter, composes music, or makes a drawing on paper in the ordinary way, excepting that he uses a peculiar ink; this is transferred to the stone by simply passing it through the press, and the stone, without further preparation, is ready to print off thousands of proofs, all equally perfect. It is this quality of Lithography that has secured its admission into all the French public offices; by its means 60,000 or 70,000 proclamations, in the autograph of the minister, may be taken off and dispatched before the plate even could be engraved.

— *Gent. Mag.*

Maternal Tenderness.—The superiority to all selfish considerations which characterizes maternal tenderness, hath often elevated the conduct of women in low life, and perhaps never appeared more admirably than in the wife of a soldier of the 55th regiment, serving in America during the campaign, 1777. Sitting in a tent with her husband at breakfast, a bomb entered, and fell between them and a bed where their infant lay asleep. The mother begged her spouse would go round the bomb before it exploded, and take away the baby, as his dress would allow him to pass the narrow space between the dreadful messenger of destruction and the bed. He refused, and left the tent calling to his wife to hasten away, as in less than a minute the fuse would communicate to the great mass of combustibles. The poor woman, absorbing all care in anxiety to save her child, tucked up her petticoats to guard against touching the bomb, snatched the unconscious innocent, and was hardly out of reach, when all the murderous materials were scattered around. Major C—— of the 55th

regiment hearing of this action, distinguished the heroine with every mark of favour. She survived many years to lament his fate at fort Montgomery, in the following month of October.

La Belle Assemblée.

Mrs. Hayley.—The extensive intellectual endowments of this lady, entitles her to a place among the illustrious, and her being the sister of the celebrated John Wilkes, will, at least, class her amongst the distinguished. Her first husband was an opulent merchant, on whose demise she gave her hand to Mr. Hayley, his clerk. He was a mere man of business, absorbed in commercial pursuits, while his lady was exceedingly well informed, had read a great deal, was possessed of fine taste and literary judgment. She therefore sought out with avidity, the society of those who were distinguished by their talents and writings; but those she thus preferred were *male* writers only; for she always evinced the utmost contempt for her own sex, and it was no uncommon sight to see her surrounded at table with ten or twelve eminent men, without a single female.

She attended all the most remarkable trials at the Old Bailey, where she regularly had a certain place reserved for her. Every summer she made an excursion to such parts of the kingdom as

she had not before visited, always accompanied by a single male friend.

After her husband's death, she had a house at Bromley, the measured distance of which, from her town residence, in Great Ayliffe-street, Goodman's fields, was ten miles. Her carriage was drawn by four beautiful black horses, and on stepping into it, she took her watch in her hand, allowing her coachman exactly one hour in going or coming. She was extravagantly fond of the drama, had a box at each of the theatres, and generally went from one house to the other. She allowed her coachman only half an hour to drive from Goodman's fields to either of the theatres. Her carriage was always built after the nicest rules of fashion, and elegantly finished.

When on the verge of seventy, Mrs. Haley bestowed her hand and fortune on a young man not thirty, with whom she departed for America. In a very short interval, a separation was judged expedient. She had confided every thing to the generosity of her husband, and with such an allowance as he thought proper to make her, she soon re-crossed the Atlantic; and after a short residence in London, fixed herself at Bath, where, to use the words of the learned Mr. Beloe, from whom we have partly gleaned this anecdote, she passed

"An old age of cards."

La Belle Assemblée.

ART. V.—*Poetry.*

From a new book called "The Fudge family in Paris, by the author of the Two Penny Post Bag," who is generally supposed to be Anacreon Moore, we extract the following, not as the best, but the shortest pieces. In our next we hope to give an account of this amusing little work which though full of political and local allusions, some of which are unintelligible on this side of the Atlantic, is still replete with humour and entertainment. We particularly admire the edifying epistles of Mr. Bob Fudge, one of that species of beings called in the fashionable slang "Dandies," who are thus described by Miss Biddy Fudge.

A thing, you know, whisker'd, great-coated, and lac'd,
Like an hour-glass, exceedingly small in the waist:
Quite a new sort of creatures, unknown yet to scholars,
With heads, so immoveably stuck in shirt-collars,
That seats like our music-stools soon must be found them,
To twirl, when the creatures may wish to look round them!

The race it seems flourishes on both sides of the Atlantic.

At the end of the book we find the beautiful monody on Sheridan, published in a recent number of the Magazine, (p. 186 of the present volume) which of itself is sufficient to identify the author, and the following

LINES ON THE DEATH OF MR. P—RC—V—L.

In the dirge we sung o'er him no censure was heard,
Unembitter'd and free did the tear-drop descend;
We forgot, in that hour, how the statesman had err'd.
And wept for the husband, the father, and friend!

Oh, proud was the meed his integrity won
 And gen'rous indeed were the tears that were shed,
 When, in grief, we forgot all the ill he had done,
 And, though wrong'd by him living, bewail'd him, when dead.
 Even now, if one harsher emotion intrude,
 'Tis to wish he had chosen some lowlier state,
 Had known what he was—and, content to be good,
 Had ne'er, for our ruin, aspir'd to be great.
 So, left through their own little orbit to move,
 His years might have roll'd in inoffensive away;
 His children might still have been bless'd with his love,
 And England would ne'er have been curs'd with his sway.

EPISTLE

FROM TOM CRIB TO BIG BEN.

CONCERNING SOME FOUL PLAY IN A LATE TRANSACTION.*

“Ahi, mio BEN!”—METASTASIO. †

What! BEN, my old hero, is this your renown?
 Is *this* the new *go*?—kick a man when he's down!
 When the foe has knock'd under, to tread on him then—
 By the fist of my father, I blush for thee, BEN!
 'Foul! foul! all the lads of the fancy exclaim—
 CHARLEY SHOCK is electrified—BELCHER spits flame—
 And MOLYNEUX—ay, even BLACKY, cries “shame!”
 Time was, when JOHN BULL little difference spied
 'Twixt a foe at his feet, and a friend at his side;
 When he found (such his humour in fighting and eating)
 His foe, like his beef-steak, the sweeter for heating—
 But this comes, Master BEN, of your curst foreign notions,
 Your trinkets, wigs, thingumbobs, gold lace and lotions;
 Your Noyaus, Curagoas, and Devil knows what—
 (One swig of *Blue Ruin*† is worth the whole lot!
 Your great and small *crosses*,—(my eyes, what a brood!
 A cross-buttock from *me* would do some of them good!)
 Which have spoilt you, till hardly a drop, my old porpoise.
 Of pure English *claret* is left in your *corpus*;
 And (as JIM says) the only one trick, good or bad,
 Of the fancy you're up to, is *fibbing*, my lad!
 Hence it comes,—BOXIANA, disgrace to thy page!—
 Having floor'd by good luck, the first *swell* of the age,
 Having conquer'd the *prime one*, that *mill'd* us all round,
 You kick'd him, old BEN, as he gasp'd on the ground!
 Ay—just at the time to show spunk, if you'd got any—
 Kick'd him, and jaw'd him, and *tag'd* him to Botany!
 Oh, shade of the *Cheesemonger*!‡ you, who, alas!
 Doubled up, by the dozen, those Mounseers in brass,
 On that great day of *milling*, when blood lay in lakes,
 When kings held the bottle, and Europe the stakes,
 Look down upon BEN—see him, *dung-hill* all o'er,
 Insult the fall'n foe, that can harm him no more;
 Out, cowardly *spooney*!—again and again,
 By the fist of my father, I blush for thee, BEN.
 To *shew the white feather* is many men's doom,
 But, what of *one feather*?—BEN shows a *whole Plume*.

* Written soon after Bonaparte's transportation to St. Helena.

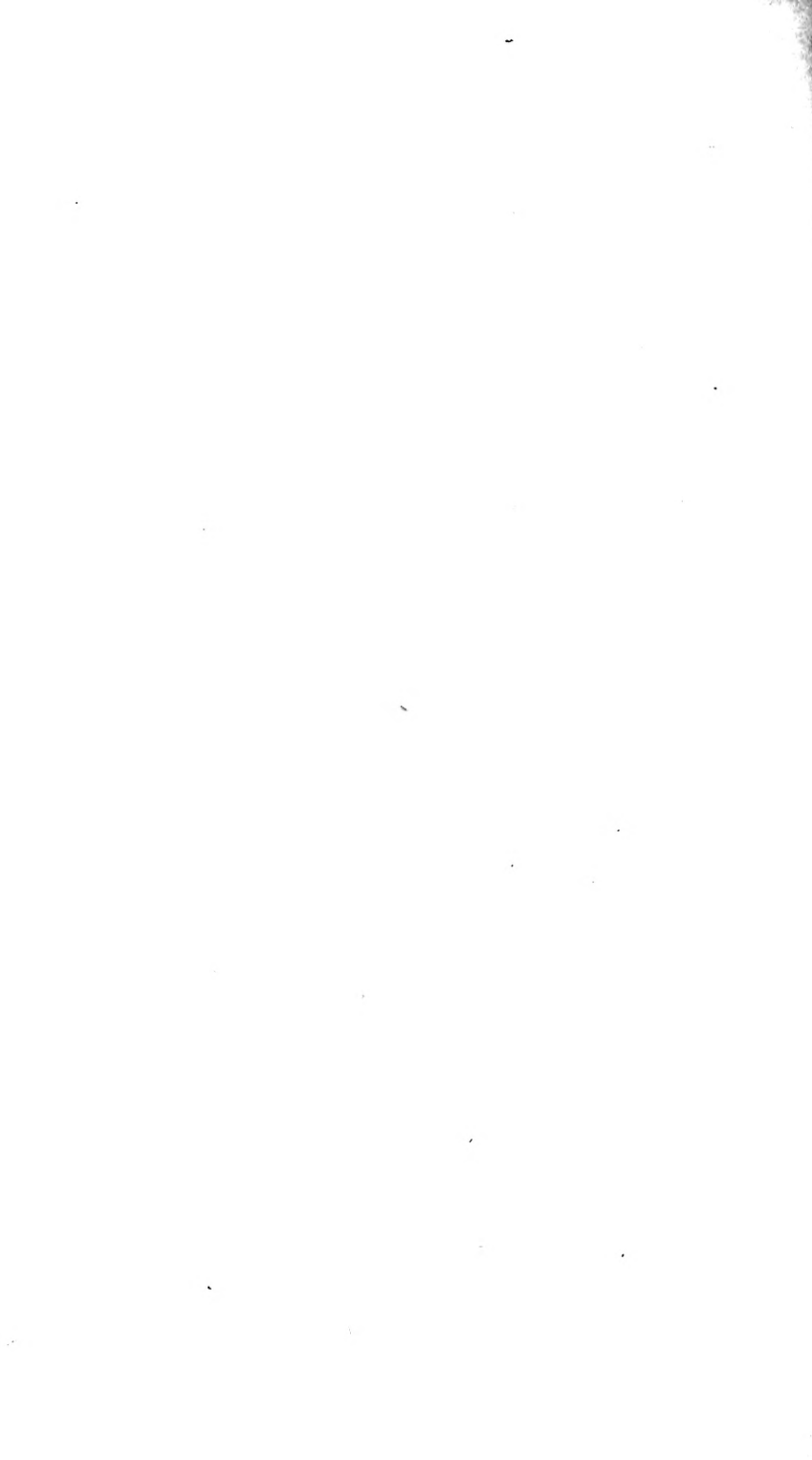
† Tom, I suppose, was “assisted” to this Motto by Mr. Jackson, who, it is well known, keeps the most learned company going.

‡ Gin.

§ Transported.

¶ A Life Guardsman, one of the *Fancy*, who distinguished himself, and was killed in the memorable *set-to* at Waterloo.





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